The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 21, 1900.

The Week.

We go to press in the midst of the quadrennial demoralizing incident of a national nominating convention, the Republican at Philadelphia. It is a gambling operation on a grand scale, with Senatorial bosses for the leading gamesters. Like Penelope's suitors, "they never meet but to consent in spoils," but they have dropped their "courtesy" in the Senate chamber, and are now pitted against each other, with Platt and Hanna conspicuously interlocked. Will Platt compel Roosevelt to take the Vice-Presidency, willy-nilly? Will Hanna secure Bliss, or Lodge Long—that thrift may follow fawning? Or are we to see a Western nomination on the ground that the Bryan windbag needs to be followed up on the stump by a greater? These questions will have been edifyingly answered by the time they reach our readers in print. It is enough now to put on record the fact that Senator Hanna called the convention to order, and that, "close as sin and suffering joined," the Silverite Senator Wolcott orated as the official apologist of the gold-standard McKinley Administration.

Senator Wolcott's speech was framed in conformity to the maxim, *De mortuis nil nisi bonum.* It consisted almost exclusively of a fulsome panegyric on the achievements of the Republican party, hardly a statement in which is not either exaggerated or untrue. The "spirit of justice and liberty" which caused the formation of the Republican party, now compels its members to sympathize with the Boers in their struggle for independence, and to demand the extermination of the Filipinos engaged in a similar struggle. This treatment of the Filipinos is defended as carrying out the policy of which our treatment of the Seminole Indians was an example. Concerning the tariff laws and the silver legislation, Senator Wolcott carries misrepresentation to an extreme. He ignores the deficit caused by the McKinley tariff and the Pension Bill, and the impending bankruptcy of the Treasury when President Harrison left office. He ignores the heroic struggle by which President Cleveland, in spite of the narrow-minded opposition of the Republican party, succeeded in saving the country from crashing down to a silver basis. He has nothing to say of the contemptible partisanship which would have ruined the credit of the Government of the United States for the sake of injuring a Democratic Administration, and which forced down the price of Government bonds rather than permit them to be declared payable in gold. In short, all the disasters which every one acquainted with financial history knows were caused by the laws passed under the Harrison Administration, are attributed to the Democratic party. All the prodigious benefits flowing from the maintenance of the gold standard by President Cleveland are attributed to the Republican party. After such a travesty of history, no one will feel surprised that this champion of duplicity should call on young men to trust in God. But such an appeal from such a quarter is little more revolting than the justification of the gold standard by a man with Senator Wolcott's monetary antecedents.

When the Colorado Senator turned from the glorification of the mythical past of his party to the delineation of its future policy, his eloquence was quickly checked by lack of material. Three measures only are promised: one for the reduction of taxes, and two for increasing expenditure. Certain articles are to be relieved from a portion of the burdens of the War Revenue Act; but ship-owners are to be subsidized, and the Government is to build, own, and keep for its own use in time of war a canal connecting the Atlantic and Pacific—all this under conditions which shall violate no treaty stipulations. Of course Senator Wolcott vigorously contends that the Constitution of the United States does not follow the flag, and that all the acts of the Republican party in dealing with Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines have been characterized by the most enlightened and disinterested benevolence. He finds a new argument for retaining the Philippines in the fact that many of our soldiers are buried there—an argument, the weight of which must sadly increase so long as our policy is continued. Altogether, Mr. Wolcott managed to concentrate a remarkably large number of impudent misrepresentations in his speech, and only his well-known "nerve" could have enabled him to keep his own face straight as he looked upon an audience which could listen to him without open laughter. Such insolence may confirm the faithful, although that is doubtful; but it certainly tends to disgust the wavering, and to exasperate those who like to hear the truth told, even in a political convention.

There seems no reason to doubt the truth of the reports that Admiral Dewey has abandoned his Presidential ambition. He is quoted as saying that he announced, some weeks ago, that he would serve the people if they wanted to have him, but that he now thanks God that they do not appear to want him. It has been suggested that he might accept a nomination for the second place, but his friends are sure that he would not. Even if he were willing, there are as yet no signs of much desire among the Bryanites to have his name on their ticket. The incident may, therefore, be considered closed. It was a surprising thing that a sailor who had appeared to be perfectly sincere in realizing his own unfitness for the Presidency, and in disclaiming any desire for the office, should suddenly show that he wanted the place, and argue that he could fill it easily because the job was not a hard one. It is a thousand pities that he lacked advisers who could have restrained him from the folly which he committed in announcing his candidacy. The best thing now is to let the unhappy incident be forgotten as soon as may be.

The announcement from Manila that the rainy season has put an embargo upon active operations by our troops in the Philippines, insures a continuance of the present conditions for a number of months. In other words, the McKinley Administration must enter the Presidential campaign with the confession that the troubles are not over, and with no assurance that they ever will be over. The most discouraging feature of the situation is the bitter hostility of the natives toward us. There is a virtual agreement of all observers regarding this fact. A letter from the New York *Sun's* Manila correspondent, and one from an officer in the regular army which was published the other day by the Rochester *Union and Advertiser*, both lay stress upon this feature of the case. With the natives, after two years' experience, hating us more than they did the Spaniards, how are harmonious relations ever to be established?

The decision of Judge Townsend, of the United States Court for this district, on the status of Porto Rico, is contrary to that recently made by Judge Lochren. In the report of the decision which is now before us, no authorities are cited, and it is therefore impossible to determine how the precedents on which Judge Lochren relied are disposed of. The case arose from the levying of duties by the Collector of New York on tobacco imported from Porto Rico in June, 1899. At that time, Congress had not legislated for Porto Rico, and it was under military government. Judge Townsend holds that as it was a foreign country before the war with Spain, it did not cease to be such because of our

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military occupation. There is no dispute on this point. But he adds that the cession of Porto Rico to the United States by Spain did not incorporate the inhabitants within the United States. The soil of the island, as we understand his reasoning, became a part of the United States, but the dwellers on the soil were not affected by this transfer of sovereignty. They were obliged to await the action of Congress before knowing the character of their citizenship. "Since Congress, at the time of this importation, had not performed this condition of incorporation, the status of Porto Rico, except as to other nations, remained unchanged." The application of our Constitution is therefore determined, not by considerations of title to land, but by recognition of the status of its inhabitants.

This conclusion Judge Townsend defends, not by reference to the law as established by the Supreme Court, but by declaring that it would be a narrow construction of the Constitution which "would find in some underlying principle a veto upon an attempt to act for the highest interest of our nation and the people intrusted to its care." With due respect for Judge Townsend's authority, it must be said that this is merely begging the question. He admits that to maintain that the Federal Government has power to govern without uniform taxation "may be an unfamiliar proposition"; but he says that as this is a power prohibited to the States, it must have passed to the Federal Government. The words of the Constitution, however, are not in accordance with this statement. That instrument declares explicitly that "The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." The position of the Imperialists, which is defended by Judge Townsend, is that the Federal Government must have despotic power over territory acquired by war, and the inhabitants thereof, because "to deny this power is to deny this nation an important attribute of sovereignty." This position confounds the nation and the Federal Government. The American nation, or "the people of the United States," to use the words of the Constitution, is absolutely sovereign. This sovereign, however, has laid down some fundamental rules which its servants, the President and Congress, must take a solemn oath to obey as a condition of taking office. The question at issue is simply whether these servants shall exercise absolute sovereignty, or whether their powers are limited by the instrument under the terms of which they hold their places.

Hopes were entertained that the Governor of Missouri, having made sure of his selection as a delegate to the Democratic National Convention, would feel free to suppress the disorder at St. Louis. The renewed reports of brutalities on Sunday extinguish these hopes. An attempt was made to operate the trolley-cars without police guards, and, as a result, four cars were blown up, numbers were stoned, one woman was shot, and another, after being beaten and driven from house after house where she sought shelter, was thrown into a pond, her assailants nearly succeeding in drowning her. This by no means exhausts the list of outrages, and there seems no immediate prospect of any improvement in the situation. The responsibility for the continued disorder appears to lie primarily with the Board of Police, but ultimately with the Chief Magistrate of the State, who can at any time assist the civil authorities with the militia. The only excuse for his inaction offered by the Governor is that it would cost several thousand dollars a day to call out troops. As the loss to the community through the prevalence of rioting will probably be reckoned in millions, this excuse deserves no consideration. We cannot escape from the conclusion that the Governor wilfully refuses to execute the laws because he is afraid of losing the votes of the strikers and those who sympathize with them. Some deplorable instances of weakness of this kind have occurred, but there is perhaps no case where the failure has been so complete and so shameless. The merits of the dispute between the strikers and their employers have ceased to be of importance, compared with the question whether rioting shall be tolerated by the Government.

It is reported in Chicago that the trade unions are willing to abandon the "sympathetic strike" as a part of their permanent armory, and that thereupon both sides will accept arbitration of their differences. The sympathetic strike, which is always accompanied by a boycott, is the most unjust, exasperating, and ruinous of all the instrumentalities evoked by strikes and lockouts. It seeks to compel all men and women to take sides in any petty quarrel that may arise between an employer and his employees, or between two groups of employees, and to turn a peaceful society into a warring mass. It is based on the innocent truism that "the injury of one is the concern of all." Undoubtedly it is. That is the reason why laws are made. The whole theory of the law is that the injury of the poor, the weak, the feeble is of so great public concern that all are bound to unite in righting the wrong without expense to the injured. Hence we have courts, sheriffs, juries, prisons, and such indirect aids and auxiliaries as charitable societies and a newspaper press. When this maxim is translated by a Debs, it means the setting aside of the carefully prepared machinery for redressing wrongs—the growth of ages—and the substitution of violence and arbitrary compulsion in place of it, accompanied by enormous loss and suffering to all classes of the community, and usually by fire and bloodshed—the whole absolutely useless, as the Chicago case proves. If we are approaching the end of the sympathetic strike, we have much to be thankful for.

In spite of the objections to "government by injunction," the Supreme Court of Nebraska, which is composed of two Populist judges and one Republican judge, has taken the very unusual step of punishing a newspaper for contempt of court. The offender, the Omaha *Bee*, had intimated quite plainly that one of the judges could not decide a case that was coming before him impartially, because he had already, while Governor, committed himself to a certain position. The case arose under a law intended to transfer the patronage of the Fire and Police Boards of Omaha from the Republican Mayor and Council of the city to the Populist Governor of the State. As a matter of fact, the judge whose disqualification was pointed out by the *Bee*, recognized that he was disqualified, and did not sit in the case. Furthermore, the case was decided in favor of the city officers, whose part was taken by the *Bee*. But the Court felt that its dignity was assailed, and, after hearing the *Bee* in its own defence, imposed a fine of $500. It intimated that if the *Bee* would apologize, the fine might be remitted; but the *Bee* refuses to apologize. It maintains that its comments were proper, that it did not charge the Court or any member of it with official misconduct, and that any apology made by it would be as insincere as Galileo's declaration that the world was stationary. One interesting development in this case was, that inquiries made of the clerks of the Supreme Courts of nearly thirty States showed that the punishment of the editor or publisher of a newspaper for contempt of court has almost never occurred. Whether this indicates self-restraint on the part of editors or on the part of judges, we shall not undertake to determine.

The recent lynching of two negroes in Mississippi was more horrible in some respects than most of these infamous affairs. A white girl had been murdered by a negro, and the evidence was strong that only one negro was concerned in the crime. Two, however, were suspected, and, in spite of the admitted fact that one of them must be innocent, both were put to death. An attempt was made in one case to extort a confession of guilt by torture, as if such a confession would be proof of guilt, but

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the wretched victim persisted in maintaining his innocence so earnestly that most of the mob were convinced of it. On reflection, however, and in cold blood, it was decided that rather than not kill one person who was possibly guilty, an innocent person as well should be sacrificed. None of the defences usually pleaded by lynchers is available in this case, and the brutes who professed to be inflicting punishment cannot deny that their act was simply a murder as atrocious as that which they pretended to avenge. It is satisfactory to see that the New Orleans *Times-Democrat* denounces this outrage with unqualified severity.

On the other hand, the Mobile *Register* indulges in some casuistry of a particularly shameless character. It mildly observes that the men engaged in this affair admitted that one of the men whom they killed was innocent, and that they will receive more than usual condemnation on that account. But it justifies their action on the ground that the antagonism of the races compels white men to presume that black men are guilty of whatever crime they are charged with, until they prove their innocence. The presumption of innocence is admitted only when all members of the community desire to punish criminals and are ready to testify against them. The blacks, it maintains, do not wish to have criminals of their race punished, and will not testify against them. Whatever else may be said of this theory of jurisprudence, it is certainly sufficient to explain the reluctance which some of the blacks may display to furnishing evidence when members of their race are accused. They know that their testimony will be accepted if it is to the guilt of the accused person, and rejected if it is to his innocence, while any confusion in their evidence may be turned against themselves. Lynching is not practised because black men will not testify; black men will not testify while lynching is practised, and, indeed, they cannot. The natural co-operation of the better class of blacks with the whites in overawing and punishing the criminal class is absolutely prevented by the policy of lynching "color" at sight.

The statement of reasons given by Gov. Mount of Indiana for refusing the requisition of the Governor of Kentucky for the surrender of Mr. Taylor to answer a charge of complicity in the assassination of William Goebel, is as undignified as the action itself is illegal and unconstitutional. It establishes a precedent for similar refusals in all kinds of cases. If the Governor to whom the requisition is addressed thinks that the accused would not have a fair trial, he may merely say that the Governor who makes the requisition and his party associates are "blind to reason," that they have "ignored civil rights," and that their courts are "mockeries of justice." Such language would naturally provoke the Governor and people of the State thus stigmatized to refuse the requisitions addressed to them by the offending Governor. We can only hope that the action taken by Gov. Mount will not attain the character of a precedent, but that it will be treated as sporadic and revolutionary. As for Mr. Taylor himself, he ought to have preserved his own dignity by remaining at home and defying his persecutors. He has greatly injured the righteous cause which he represents by his weak and wabbling course since the election.

The extortion practised by the American Ice Company in doubling its prices to consumers in this city, was seized on by the representatives of the labor unions as a reason why the city authorities should establish an ice factory. Beyond question these authorities could maintain such an establishment, and could furnish ice to the people at very moderate prices. The reason why they could do this is to be found in the fact that the cost of such an experiment would be defrayed by the taxpayers. The result might be that the cost of the ice furnished by the municipality would be much greater than at present. The experiment has been tried in Boston, where the city engaged in the business of cutting and storing the ice used in public drinking-fountains. The citizens were thus provided with free ice water, as they might be provided with free ice here. But when Mayor Hart assumed office in Boston, he caused an investigation to be made of the cost of the ice supplied by the city, and found, according to the statements made in Boston newspapers, that it was about $60 a ton. The ice-dealers would have furnished it to the city at $3 a ton. We do not understand that the ice business of the city had been dishonestly managed. There had been no embezzlement of funds, and proper vouchers were found for all payments. But as there was no inducement to manage it economically, while there were many to manage it extravagantly, the result was not surprising. The civil-service laws did not prevent the favorites of politicians from getting places and from keeping them even when proved incompetent. There is no reason to suppose that a municipal ice plant would be better managed by the politicians of New York city than by those of Boston.

It is an extraordinary personal triumph which the German Emperor has won in at last inducing the Reichstag to vote him the new battle-ships which he said he should never be happy till he got. Six months of wire-pulling and bargaining and compromising have been necessary—and must have been galling in the extreme to the *sic-volo-sic-jubeo* Hohenzollern—but the end crowns the work, and William can now point proudly to the fulfilment of his promise last Christmas: "And even as my grandfather labored for his army, so will I in like manner and unerringly carry on and carry through the work of reorganizing my navy, in order that it may be justified in standing by the side of my land forces, and that by it the German Empire may also be in a position abroad to win a place which it has not yet attained." The original Government proposals had to be considerably amended. The main change was in cutting down the ships for foreign service. What the Emperor asked was an increase of battleships from 19 to 38, of first-class cruisers from 12 to 20, and of second-class cruisers from 30 to 45. What he gets is 36 battle-ships, 19 first-class cruisers, and 38 second-class cruisers. The difference is slight, after all, and the total makes certainly a formidable fleet. It substantially doubles the strength of the German navy as fixed by the act of 1898, which was itself a great advance on anything known before.

The Government of Japan has been obliging enough to relieve some of the authorities in this country and in the Dominion of Canada from an embarrassing problem. The influx of Japanese in British Columbia and in the State of Washington has recently become so large as to disturb the labor market on the Pacific Coast, and to arouse very emphatic demands from the labor unions for the prohibition of immigration. Neither Great Britain nor the United States could comply with these demands, and the Government of the former Power has been obliged to nullify some of the measures proposed by the Legislature of British Columbia. The Japanese Government has now relieved the situation here by issuing an order which will reduce the number of its subjects emigrating to this country to insignificant proportions; for which relief the demagogues of this continent should express much thanks. Henceforth not more than five persons in a month may emigrate to the United States from any of the forty-seven prefectures in Japan, and not more than ten will be permitted to go to Canada. The immigration to the Pacific Coast has been so large as to make it probable that it has been artificially stimulated, and the action of the Japanese Government, although arbitrary, may be for the interest of those of its subjects who are now in this country. Doubtless the complications which threaten Japan, make its Government reluctant to allow subjects capable of bearing arms to expatriate themselves at present.

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THE FERMENT IN CHINA.

The rationale of the troubles in China is beginning to appear in a clearer light as events move on. That a formidable reaction is shaking the Empire has been obvious enough, but it has not been plainly seen that it has a domestic side as well as an international aspect. The truth is, however, that the movement of which the "Boxers" have taken the murderous lead, is directed against not only foreign interlopers, but native reformers as well. These are normally the two phases of the agitation. The revolt is one against modern ideas and methods, whether imposed from without or advocated from within. Missionaries are murdered and foreigners hunted on exactly the same principle that led to the execution of six native reformers at Pekin, and sent Kang-Yu and other educated Chinamen, hospitable to the new enlightenment, fleeing from the land for safety.

Much valuable information concerning the influences at work for the regeneration of China from within is given in an article by Prof. Robert K. Douglas in the June *Nineteenth Century*. Professor Douglas is a recognized authority in matters Chinese. For many years in the China Consular Service, he is now Professor of Chinese in King's College, London, and Keeper of Oriental Books and MSS. in the British Museum. The special value of his article lies in its clear account of the means by which the long night of intellectual stagnation in China has been made to yield to something like the dawn. The most potent agency has been the systematic publication of books conveying to educated persons correct notions of Western science and religion and the progress of civilization. Appeal has been deliberately made to the more intelligent classes. It has been perceived that the motive power for enlightenment and reform in so vast and ignorant a population must be found among the people themselves, and must come from above —from the mandarins and *literati*. Accordingly, selected works on history, geography, the various sciences, besides the Bible, have been translated into a pure literary style, such as the learned affect, and have had a wide circulation and powerful influence.

Professor Douglas gives in considerable detail an account of the publishing activity of the "Society for the Diffusion of Christian and General Knowledge among the Chinese." It has issued more than 120 volumes. These are not given away, but sold, and the demand for them has increased remarkably in all parts of the Empire. Thus, when a popular edition of Mackenzie's 'Nineteenth Century' was recently brought out, 4,000 copies were sold within a fortnight—this, be it remembered, among a population only 10 per cent. of which is able to read. The Society's agents have made particular efforts to circulate their books and pamphlets among students. A stock is maintained at each of the 200 centres of examination in the Empire, and the sales have been steadily rising. All told, the work of the Society has been, says Professor Douglas, "a triumphant success."

One proof of this is to be seen in the way in which the native ardor for the new learning, having once been kindled, has set about trying to satisfy itself. Chinese publishing houses have themselves taken up the idea of translating foreign books which may be useful to the people. More striking even than that fact is the rapid multiplication of native newspapers. In 1895 there were only nineteen in the whole Empire. In 1898 the number was quadrupled. Professor Douglas makes no doubt that the Japanese war, with its shock and surprise of defeat, was the means of convincing even the most complacent mandarins that their country must learn of Western civilization or perish. In 1893, before the war, the sales of the Society's books amounted to only $817, but in 1898, after the war, the demand had grown so much greater that $18,457 was realized. Travellers into the remote interior have been astonished to find these imported books eagerly sought after, and to meet officials in distant provinces who "can talk glibly on new scientific discoveries, and who are intimately acquainted with the Constitutional histories of Western nations." So far had the enthusiasm for the new education gone that the Viceroy Chang advocated in a state paper the introduction of Western studies and the teaching of foreign languages in the native schools, and declared that the lands of the Buddhist and Taoist monasteries might well be seized to endow the new chairs.

Of course, this promising internal movement, which amounted to an intellectual awakening, has been temporarily checked by the reaction under the bigoted Empress-Dowager. But such a flowing stream cannot be turned again into stagnant waters. So far as the uprising is against foreigners, it will have to be put down sternly by the Pekin Government itself, or else suppressed by foreign intervention. Then will come the opportunity of the native reformers whose strength at present, writes Professor Douglas, is to "sit still" and see the brutal reaction wreck itself. In the whole movement towards better things, which will undoubtedly be resumed, it is not too much to see the hope of an ultimate regeneration of China such as Japan has wrought out for herself. And how superior would be the method to that of our pike-and-gun Imperialists! When we opened Japan to civilization, we did not find it necessary to seize islands and set up "spheres of influence"; we trusted to the empire of ideas; we gave books instead of bayonets; machinery, instead of swindling carpet-baggers. That was the old and successful way of empire-building. There is undoubtedly a peril, as Goldwin Smith asserts, that the new Imperialism of shot and shell may be applied to China; that the civilized nations may take their next *battues*, in the name of humanity and religion, out of the millions of Chinese whose invincible ignorance of centuries is just being penetrated by the first gleams of knowledge. But the example of Japan shows us the more excellent way, and it is to be hoped that the Chinese, too, will be left to work out their own salvation. That they have the instrumentalities and the leaders ready to their hand, as soon as these troublous times are overpast, Professor Douglas is firmly convinced.

Meanwhile, nothing can be more evident than that Russia and Japan are more directly concerned in the Chinese crisis than any other nation. The map is the great treaty-maker and international lawyer, and the map shows that in the impending break-up, or at any rate sweeping readjustment, in North China, Russian and Japanese interests are predominant. Close upon the flank of China lies Japan, a nation eager to colonize, with a population of 40,000,000 already pressing hard upon the means of subsistence. Just across a narrow channel is Korea, thinly settled, with a kindred people and institutions—the very outlet for Japanese energy. "Korea must be Japanese," is the one watchword of foreign politics for all parties and classes in Japan. If nature had chanced to make Korea an island instead of a peninsula, it would undoubtedly have been numbered long since among the Japanese islands, as surely as Yesso. Formosa, to the south, was added as the one visible trophy of the war with China; but Formosa has a teeming population, and is not colonizable. To Korea and to predominance in North China, Japanese ambitions steadfastly look.

On the other hand, Russia's march to supremacy in all that region has been stealthy and steady. Her railway across Siberia and through Mantchuria has been pushed with consuming zeal, and is within less than two years of completion, every section having hitherto been finished in advance of the estimated time. Not content with her terminal harbor of Vladivostok, Russia secured Port Arthur, and has since been working feverishly to make it impregnable. More than 90,000 coolies are at this moment laboring on the fortifications of this Russian arsenal at the point of the Liao-Tong peninsula. A railroad to connect with Vladivostok has been pushed on rapidly, and is to be completed in October. Meanwhile, Korea has not been neglected by Russian diplomats. In addition to thwarting Japanese influence at Seul in every way possible, they suddenly secured for themselves, apparently

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in open violation of their agreements with both China and Japan, the Korean harbor of Masampho, right across the Korean Channel from Nippon.

The suddenly precipitated Chinese anarchy, however, may easily put a new face on the entire question. The Russo-Japanese serpent may be swallowed by a bigger one. What the Powers will have to confront and decide is the whole question of the control of the Chinese Empire; and the chances are now greatly increased that a decision, and a division of territory, if that be necessary, will be reached by the peaceful means of a solemn international agreement under the highest guarantees. Even so, Russia and Japan would need to be given the lion's share. Geography settles that. Korea to Japan, and Mantchuria, clear down to Pekin, as Russia's part, would be a natural assignment. But, whatever the settlement, after the first stern task of restoring order is accomplished, it is much more likely to be a pacific settlement than seemed possible two months ago.

THE CUBAN ELECTIONS.

On Saturday last the Cubans took the first step towards their promised independent government. The municipal elections then held, under a restricted suffrage, are regarded as only the preliminary to a Constitutional Convention, to be called before the end of the year for the purpose of framing a system of self-government to which the United States, as in honor bound, will thereafter commit the destinies of the island. This is the clear understanding of the natives. Gen. Gomez, in the speech which he made on his return to Havana a fortnight ago, explicitly laid down the programme of the Cubans. It is to accept municipal autonomy as a gratifying payment on account, an earnest of the intention of the American Government to discharge the full debt of Cuban independence as speedily as may be.

As both important in themselves, and as an indication of what the Cubans may be expected to do when intrusted with full control of their own affairs, these first elections deserve careful study. In the party organizations formed for the purpose of taking part in them, and in the electoral methods followed, we already have a fair measure of Cuban political aptitude. One unexpected feature of the contest is the general indifference and apathy which have prevailed. In Havana, only about one-half the eligible voters took the trouble to register, and one-sixth of these abstained from the polling. In the city of Santiago, where it was estimated that there would be 10,000 votes, the registration was less than 2,000. Similar conditions appeared in the other municipalities. The affair, too, went off quietly. There was no excitement, only a small vote, no howling crowds reading the election returns.

What is the reason of this lethargy? Partly, no doubt, a feeling that the game was not worth the candle; that the military government is really in control, and means to continue so; and that the municipal elections are only a sop to the dissatisfied, and a way of marking time. But it cannot be denied that a powerful reason for the disgust of the better classes with this first electoral experiment lies in the fact that the party organizations, and their candidates, represent little but political adventurers. This was sorrowfully confessed the other day by *Patria*, a native Havana paper, which said that the educated and property-owning people of the island could not go to the polls to advance the fortunes of the professional politicians who alone were standing for office. The contrast was too painful with the practice under Spanish rule, when university professors and leading planters and merchants were put forward as Deputies in the Cortes. Gen. Wood was waited upon a few days ago by a delegation of prominent lawyers, bankers, and business men to protest against his reported intention to call a Constitutional Convention in September. They pointed to the fact that not a single candidate now up for office was other than a professional politician, and that the political power in the hands of that class meant absolute ruin to the island. We presume that Gen. Wood reassured them by asserting gravely that the United States would be horrified at the thought of professional politicians getting control of the Government.

Three nominally different parties were nominally in the field. The "Nacional Cubano" has turned out to be the strongest, and is certainly the most vociferous. Then there are the "Partido Republicano" and the "Unión Democrática." The platforms of all of them were filled with professions as benevolent and principles as lofty as those produced at Philadelphia this week, and the unexpressed main intention—to get the offices—is about as clear as it has been made in Hanna's Convention. No real difference of political belief or programme divides the three parties; except that the Unión Democrática is thought to be covertly for annexation. Gen. Gomez hinted as much in his speech, though he admitted that the Democrática "professed good faith" (*anuncia buena fé*). The old General freely said that this splitting up of Cubans into warring factions was a great grief to him. And Gen. Collazo, in his newspaper, *La Nación*, speaks of the political goings on in Cuba as "childish politics, and an exhibition worthy of Chinamen."

Chief interest centred in the Mayoralty contest in Havana. Gen. Rodriguez was the candidate of the Cuban National party. Señor Zaldo was the nominee of the Republican party, but he withdrew in a huff, and his party solemnly announced that it would take no part in the elections, on account of some objectionable features of the electoral law. Thereupon, a sort of independent candidate came forward in the person of Señor Estrada Mora. He had sought the nomination of the National party, and was naturally denounced as a "renegade" for opposing Rodriguez. The Republicans and Democrats quietly supported Mora, but he was beaten two to one. In Santiago, it was the National party which washed its hands of the election, and left the Republicans to have a walk-over. All told, therefore; we cannot regard the election returns as very interesting or highly significant. What is really significant is the way in which the Cubans have approached the election. As we have pointed out, there has been a disquieting amount of indifference and abstention, and a still more disquieting coming to the fore of characterless intriguers.

ARBITRATION, COMPULSORY AND OTHER.

In the testimony given before the Industrial Commission at Washington last week by Mr. N. F. Thompson of Huntsville, Ala., we find a discussion of the labor question which really goes to the root of the disease. There may have been others, before Mr. Thompson came forward, who have applied the scalpel with equal thoroughness and intrepidity, but we have not happened to hear of them. Mr. Thompson is described as the Secretary of the Southern Industrial Convention. Whatever this body may be, it is served by a man who knows how to make himself understood, and who withholds nothing that contributes to that end. Evidently he is not an office-seeker. No office-seeker would have used the words with which he describes the present situation of the American republic. He considers labor organizations "the greatest menace to this Government that exists to-day inside or outside the pale of our national domain"—far more dangerous to the perpetuity of the republic than would be the hostile array on our border of all the armies of the world combined. He has arrived at this conviction after years of close study with the amplest means of information. The sympathetic strike and the boycott constitute the menace which he has in mind. The sympathetic strike is inaugurated to redress the wrongs of some one class or person, however insignificant or however unjust may be the demands of that class or person. When resistance is made to those demands, the boycott is invoked to compel all classes to join in enforcing the demand, although their own interests may be directly opposed thereto. The boycott is the force undermining the State, and Mr. Thomp-

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son's language is not too strong when he says:

"To recognize such a power as this in any organization, or to permit such a theory to be advanced without protest or counteracting influence, is so dangerous and subversive of the Government that it may justly be likened to the planting of deadly virus in the heart of organized society—death being its certain and speedy concomitant. Organizations teaching such theories should be held as treasonable in their character, and their leaders worse than traitors to their country. It is time for the plainest utterances on this subject, for the danger is imminent; and in view of the incidents that have attended recent strikes, it can be considered little less than criminal in those who control public sentiment, that such scenes are possible anywhere in this country."

These may be called extreme opinions, but the facts and reasons by which they are supported are quite sufficient to warrant the conclusion that the real crisis of the country is not in the East Indies or the West Indies, but "in our midst," and that in reaching out to seize foreign countries, and to introduce civilization and suppress evils among distant "savages," we are wasting time, money, and blood which might better be spent in finding a remedy for greater evils at home.

Looking at labor organizations from the standpoint of patriotism, it cannot be said that their members, or even the walking delegates to whom the greater part of the mischief is imputed, are consciously unpatriotic. They believe themselves to be working for the best interests of the country when they work for their own interest; but even if it were otherwise, where is the social class that thinks more highly of the welfare of the country than of its own welfare? The patriotism that prefers country to self is the possession of individuals, not of classes. When sacrifices are to be made for the good of the State, rich and poor are expected to contribute and do contribute. The line of demarcation does not run between classes. None the less do we consider Mr. Thompson's diagnosis of the country's chief malady a pretty accurate one. Looking at the situation of Chicago, where industry in the building trade has been suspended for several months, and where the public authorities have surrendered their powers to a private society whose decrees are enacted in secret session, we recall that only six years ago the same city passed through the Debs strike and boycott, which was accompanied by bloodshed and conflagration, and that a little earlier the Anarchist rebellion took place there—all showing that one experience, instead of serving as a deterrent, seems to pave the way for another of the same kind.

Evidently the repetition of the sympathetic strike and boycott, with their attendant suffering and their prodigious loss, is not to be avoided by shooting and hanging. These remedies may be necessary in particular cases, but they are not preventive. Mr. Thompson agrees to this. He thinks that society should not relinquish the power to deal summarily with outbreaks that occur, but that it should take measures to make a repetition of them impossible. He says:

"In view of the close relationship existing among all classes of our citizens and the interdependency of all interests, strikes and boycotts should be made a felony both by national and State legislation; and to secure adequate relief for the grievances for which strikes and boycotts are inaugurated I would suggest the formation of national and State boards of arbitration, authorized and empowered to settle all matters of difference between labor and capital, and whose decrees shall be binding on the parties affected—granting an appeal, however, to the civil courts to either party dissatisfied with the arbitration."

This suggestion calls to mind the Compulsory Arbitration Law which has been in force in New Zealand since January, 1895. This act provides that in any case of dispute between a labor organization and an employer, or an employers' organization, which cannot be settled by conference between the parties, the one which makes the complaint may demand an arbitration, the machinery for which is provided by the law, and that in the meantime the industry shall not be interrupted. The umpire in such arbitration is a Justice of the Supreme Court, who holds his office for life. The history of this law and its practical working is set forth in a book of 180 pages, recently published, entitled 'A Country without Strikes' (Doubleday, Page & Co.), by Henry D. Lloyd, who made a visit to New Zealand for the purpose of studying this novel problem. We call attention to this work because it tallies with the remarkable testimony of Mr. Thompson before the Industrial Commission, not meaning to imply that such a law would fit the conditions of the United States. This we greatly doubt, but it is evident that New Zealand's example is one of the things we must study in settling the gravest problem before the American people.

DISCOVERIES IN THE AGORA AT CORINTH.

ATHENS, May 29 1900.

This year's work at Corinth has eclipsed in one way the work of former years. It is true that we had gone on in three campaigns excavating one important building after another until we found ourselves inside the agora. The establishing a topography of such an important city was in one aspect a brilliant success. But though the excavator's main object may be the recovery of buildings, he still hopes that good luck will throw in his way some interesting small objects. Our workmen are perhaps not singular in their feeling that excavations which do not bring out statues are a failure. We ourselves felt keenly the lack of heads for the dozen or twenty statues found in the first three campaigns; and, although we had found a fairly good quantity of vases of early styles, we still wanted something more striking of the art of that rich city, which, even after its destruction by the Romans, possessed so much. It began to look dubious whether very much had survived the slower and surer destruction of ages of occupation. Particularly, after we had last year passed up the paved street from Lechæon, ascended the great marble staircase, gone through the central opening of the Propylæa, and proceeded nearly half way through the agora, clearing a space thirty yards wide as we advanced, without finding anything of importance, it began to seem as if our holy of holies was empty, after all. So it was with some misgivings that I began, this year, in performance of what seemed a duty, the clearing out of so much of the agora as was already expropriated.

This time, we turned the west flank of the Propylæa, and before we got far we found our way fairly checked by an abundance of marble blocks and statues. The former were architrave blocks, very massive, carved on one side with most elaborate mouldings (the most prominent of which was the palm-leaf band), on the other with the usual Ionic mouldings, and on the bottom with a triple band of overlapping myrtle leaves; and cornice blocks ornamented with brackets and rosettes. Among about ten of each kind of these several were curved, the ornamented side being concave.

The first statues found were a pair of colossal figures, eight feet high, wearing the Phrygian cap, attached to pilasters at the back. Two Corinthian square capitals fitted on to the tops of these pilasters. The backs of the heads of the statues were cut away, that they might come closer up against the capital, which was also cut away a little. The figures thus appeared to *assist* at least in bearing the architrave, and so were analogous to the famous Caryatids. Two square bases, three feet each way, with the same ornamentation as the architrave blocks, and with most shabby reliefs on one side, were seen to be bases for these figures, the plinth with the feet of one of the statues fitting exactly into the depression at the top of one of them. Thus, we can reconstruct the whole system from the bottom up. Two more large, fine female heads, with the same proportions and the same cuttings at the back, belong evidently to the same series; but nothing of their bodies has yet been recovered. One large plaque of ceiling, doubtless of the same building, containing in two of its sunken squares busts of Helios and Selene in relief, and in a third a rosette, is supplemented by several other pieces with rosettes. As we kept on going southwest from the west end of the Propylæa, we expected to find foundations to fit all these pieces of the superstructure; but now that we seem to have got beyond the mass of them, and no foundations fitted for them appear, the probability that they come from the Propylæa, of which we have massive buttresses remaining, is greatly increased. To reconstruct the Propylæa is a large hope, and it seems now about to be realized. At any rate, the sculpture, although of Roman times, is valuable for itself.

After the first flush of excitement, there followed many dull days in which we had little to record, except the removal of so many cubic metres of earth. Then came the discovery of a very fine head of Ariadne, with an ivy wreath and one hand

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thrown up over the head, in a state of perfect preservation; then a relief, with two ecstatic mænads most beautifully carved on a rounded block which formed a part of a base about four feet in diameter, perhaps a base for a group of Dionysos and Ariadne from which the head just mentioned came.

But, not to catalogue all our finds here, I will note the crowning success of the year. About seventy-five feet southwest of the west end of the Propylæa, we came upon a platform about three feet high with a façade made of metopes and triglyphs and a coping above them, with red, blue, and yellow paint still covering them, making a gorgeous show even now. This façade had a length of about thirty feet, and in a part of its extent it had no platform behind it, and was simply a balustrade. At one point it was broken through. As we advanced into this opening we came upon a series of slabs on a level with the bottom of the triglyph system. When these slabs were taken up, the earth rolled down on one side so much that those working above joked at those below to the effect that they were going to be swallowed up in the earth. In a few hours we did get down into the earth; but it was by a flight of seven steps, at the bottom of which we stood on the floor of an irregularly quadrangular room, about twenty-five feet below the surface which we had broken up. In the west wall of the room there were two rather undersized lions' heads of bronze, through the wide-open mouths of which water had once flowed. Beneath them were the round holes in the pavement in which pitchers were placed for filling. Above them there projected forward the edge of the native ledge with which we had become familiar two years ago in the fountain Peirene at the other end of the Propylæa. There was no doubt, there could be no doubt, that here we were at an ancient Greek level, and that the fountain which we have is an ancient Greek fountain, not destroyed like Glauke nor remodelled several times like Peirene, but remaining absolutely intact, an absolutely unique example. I was so staggered by it that I could hardly believe in our good luck. Mr. Kabbadias, the Ephor General of Antiquities, came out from Athens and upbraided me for not being enthusiastic enough over my luck. And when he wrote about it in the papers, visitors came from Athens and elsewhere, so that we had to have a guard mounted to see that the lions' heads were not stolen. Two Cabinet members came separately yesterday afternoon. To-day, casts of the heads are being made.

Although it is certain that the fountain itself is Greek, the balustrade at the top of the steps is Roman in the sense that it was placed there when Corinth was refounded by Julius Cæsar. But it is Greek, and very interesting Greek, in that it is taken from temples which Mummius destroyed when they had all their *parure* fresh upon them, and convey to us a lively impression of the distribution of color on a Doric temple. Pausanius never saw the buildings from which they come, for when he visited the place they had ceased to exist for more than three hundred years. And he was too much engaged in recording *sacred* things to mention this balustrade made of their remains, beautiful though it must have been. He does, indeed, I think, mention this fountain without noticing the balustrade especially; for this is in the agora, and he mentions a single fountain there, one on which stood a bronze statue of Poseidon with a dolphin at his feet ejecting water from its mouth. As we found a base on the above mentioned platform (which, by the way, forms the covering to the room in front of the wall with the lion's heads), it seems natural to connect this with the statue of Poseidon, even if we fail to see how the water was brought to so high a level.

I must refrain from enlarging on other events of the campaign, but ought not to leave unmentioned a most exquisite votive relief found in the last days of the work, with seven small figures not more than eight inches high. The pure spirit of Greek art breathes through it, and is felt as sensibly from it as from the Parthenon frieze or from the Attic tombstones of the best period.

RUFUS B. RICHARDSON.

THE ECLIPSE IN TRIPOLI.

TRIPOLI, BARBARY, May 29, 1900.

A more nearly ideal station for observing an eclipse could hardly be imagined than the roof terrace of the old British Consulate here, whereon, through the courtesy of Mr. Jago, the Consul-General, Professor Todd has set up his instruments. Higher than all the surrounding houses, it commands a fine view of the white city, through whose courtyards an occasional palm or blossoming oleander projects itself above the masonry; and is overlooked only by the green-capped, crescent-crowned minarets of seven or eight mosques, from which the cloaked muezzins emerge five times a day to send out their not unmelodious calls to prayer. Far beyond roofs and domes, too, one sees on three sides the blue Mediterranean, and on the fourth the fringing palms of the desert, and its undulating, mysterious wastes of endless sand.

Here the "royal observatory" is established, and the Arab dwellers on surrounding roofs have watched for several weeks the growth of telescopic groves, a dignified curiosity marking their silent attention. Below, in the narrow streets, figures wrapped in the white barracan pass and repass like ghostly figures of a dream. An occasional Moslem woman showing only one bright eye, the Jewish women less covered but hardly more frequent, brown Arab boys driving flocks of goats, overburdened donkeys, stately camels—the whole Oriental procession in endless interest threads the tiny thoroughfares; and above, the long tubes have pointed skyward, waiting for the important day.

When the apparatus in its many boxes first arrived, the natives imagined that the astronomer was bringing a huge balloon to convey him into the interior of the desert, and many innocent questions as to his intentions gave zest to the early days of Tripoli life. The older men, on being told that an eclipse was coming, said they remembered one years ago, but that was produced by God. This new kind, made by a Kaffir, they knew nothing about. At all events, it was not lawful to draw or depict it in any way. An eclipse was total here, or near by, according to Oppolzer, on December 31, 1861, which may be the one remembered—or possibly the annular eclipse of June 17, 1890.

Just before its plunge off into the desert to the southeast, and its flight away from the earth entirely, the long path of yesterday's total eclipse covered Tripoli in a brief darkness. From Mexico very early in the morning to Barbary late in the afternoon, the swiftly flying shadow of the moon sped on its way, calling scores of astronomers into its track. The chances for clear skies seemed greater here, and hither came Professor Todd and later Mr. Percival Lowell to interrogate the corona.

The automatic system of eclipse photography, first devised by Professor Todd in Japan in 1887, carried out by pneumatic tubes in West Africa in 1889, and by electricity in Japan in 1896, he employed again, with essential modifications, using a purely mechanical force in changing the plates, and turning the controlling barrel by gravity, weights starting at the roof and descending to the bottom of the courtyard. On one great central tube were twelve telescopes, each arranged to take its own series of pictures. The upper one was a five-inch Zeiss-Clark lens by Bausch & Lomb of Rochester, fitted up as a biograph camera for taking four photographs every three seconds. A five-inch Schroeder lens, with image amplified in the ordinary way, came next, with an attachment invented by Professor Todd for photographing both the inner and outer corona on the same plate, by a series of concentric rings, successively removed as the eclipse progresses—which he also used in Japan. Following the order of position on the tube, a quadruple camera with lenses by the Gundlach Optical Co. and C. P. Goerz of Berlin was arranged to take twelve pictures by each lens; a four-inch metal speculum succeeded, and two short focus cameras by Ross of London and Gilmer of Paris were added, to get records of possible intramercurian planets; next came a pinhole photometer for estimating the total light of the corona; a twenty-four-inch lens of thirty feet focus, the conspicuous feature of our roof observatory, was arranged for taking large-scale coronal pictures, and a box of a dozen dry plates for testing the possibility of X-rays in the corona completed the apparatus carried by the one large tube. Half of each of these plates had been previously exposed by Professor Stephan of Marseilles to the Roentgen rays, while the other half was covered with lead, waiting for what might develop on eclipse day. The whole mounting was kept accurately pointed at the sun by the glycerine clock, which has enabled very perfect following of the heavenly bodies. Like everything else in Tripoli, the standards, tubes, and all iron or brass or wood connected with the apparatus, were painted white, to avoid absorption of heat—and indeed it seemed a spectral array of telescopes for photographing a shadow. A number of small glasses to be used visually were mounted by themselves, and three or four fine meteorological instruments were put in position and used on eclipse day by Professor Ayra, director of the local observatory.

As preparations approached a focus, and the eventful day drew near, the skies became an all-absorbing subject of study for the unofficial member of the Lowell Expedition. It is the dry season in Tripoli, and storms would not come, fine weather being always normal at this time; but that does not mean necessarily an absolutely cloudless sky, and there was a bare possibility, also, that it might be a "giblet" day, when the hot wind

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would blow straight from the central deserts, bringing a yellowish haze of imperceptible sand to thicken the atmosphere dangerously. But Sunday came, bright and warm, with a few floating clouds, and Monday morning dawned with a fresh west wind and skies of crystal clearness. It was scarcely possible to experience any nerve tension on account of the weather, and yet I jealously watched the western sky all day, lest some wandering bit of film might dim the perfect brightness of it. And as the hour drew nearer, the same sense of expectancy, of something approaching, which has always accompanied eclipses, drew on with the minutes.

From Mr. Douglass, in far-away Georgia, a gratifying cable message was received about 1:59, Greenwich time, of his success in observing the eclipse, thus beating the on-rushing moon by man's swifter messenger. We received the news in twenty-nine minutes from the time the observations were made, and two hours and twenty minutes before totality began here. The Georgia message was telegraphed to Washington; by the Western Union from Washington to New York; from there to Penzance, and thence to Gibraltar. On Prof. Todd's application and by the courtesy of Denison Pender, Esq., General Manager of the extensive lines of the Eastern Telegraph Co., and son of the late Sir John Pender, the use of the new cables from Gibraltar to Malta and Malta to Tripoli was given, which enabled this very rapid communication, and the entire worsting of the moon in its race with electricity.

Gradually, the roofs about the consulate filled with a curious throng, as the afternoon began. Arabs folded in white barracans silhouetted against the sky; Turkish soldiers on their ramparts, the Franciscan monks in brown-hooded robes on their church roof, Jews and Maltese, all crowded skyward as the day advanced. The partial eclipse began, and still the people, like the Ainus of northern Yezo, looked steadily at us, and not at the sun. The adoration of Baal, once the old worship on these sites, had, indeed, given way to a scientific solar devotion of very different character. The minarets were filled with gazers, and, as the eclipse went on, the strange Gregorian chant of the call to prayer came through the still, clear air with an almost weird cadence in the peculiarly penetrating voices of the muezzins. The sky was so clear, the sunshine so dazzling, that the glare of the white roof was almost blinding, and the first change in the light which became perceptible was the increasing comfort in opening one's eyes upon the landscape. Many amateur observers had been drilled for drawing the corona, observing the shadow-bands, Bailey's beads, and other points of interest, and at a signal all went to their appointed places as totality approached. When the sun was somewhat more than half hidden, the light became wan and cold, the colors of everything subdued, sad. The blue Mediterranean turned slate-color, the sky like steel. The streets and roofs, though crowded with humanity, grew singularly silent, with now and then a sound of alarm from some distant point. One man only seemed entirely oblivious to the changing light, and he, wrapped in cassiabeia in a shaded courtyard far below, was stupidly shaking barley in a sieve.

The air grew suddenly cold and slightly damp, and the swallows came out in masses, flying about excitedly, in a manner quite different from their nightly sunset parade. As the black moon crept nearer and nearer to the narrowing edge of the crescent sun, strange shadow-bands began to fly across the landscape at a rapid rate, and then the crescent disintegrated into drops of brilliance, and with a thrill of tingling expectation I felt the corona approaching. Not with jerks, as in 1887, or with a grand leap, as in 1896, the darkness came, but with a strange softness—and there hung the moon's black ball in an absolutely clear sky, while about it the corona grew into life like the blossoming of some beautiful flower of celestial light. And what an exquisite corona it was—with long, delicately pointed equatorial streamers above and below, their edges luminous with white fire, their extensions lost only because the eye could not follow them to the end, the polar rays inconspicuous; and the whole with a definite structure of interwoven filaments almost an exact reproduction of the New Year's Day corona of 1889. Mercury and Venus shone brilliantly, and the sky above the desert glowed warmly yellow. But there was none of that majesty of color, that unearthly effect of a new creation, which made the Esashi eclipse of 1896 so superbly breathless. For fifty-one seconds this heavenly flower hung in the sky, and then a bit of true, dazzling sunlight returned, and totality was over. By shielding my eyes from the increasing brightness I followed the corona distinctly for over a minute after totality, until it faded away with the growing light. And gravity had done its work—endless chains of plates had passed before the lenses, pulleys had kept their place, records were made, and except for releasing the pin at the beginning, as Mrs. Jago did, to put the mechanism in motion, no hand had helped to take the hundred and fifty photographs which that pregnant fifty-one seconds had brought out.

The Lowell Expedition has been peculiarly fortunate in finding on these remote African shores many friends, who made its success possible. First, her Majesty's Consul-General, Mr. Jago and his delightful family, without whose more than courteous kindness the "royal observatory" could not have existed; and to Mr. W. H. Venables and Mr. W. F. Riley, the warmest thanks are due for an unselfish devotion to the mechanical part of the expedition, which insured its proper completion in ample time. So many names should be mentioned, that a complete list of the small English colony here would have to be made in order to include all who have helped us in these weeks of effort.

Another total eclipse will come near Tripoli in 1905, but a fine and very long one is due here on the 2d of August, 2027. It will last about seven minutes, and I only regret that circumstances beyond our control will probably prevent our observation of its protracted glories. And so I can leave this word of hopefulness for those who regretted the spectacular brevity of yesterday's corona: "The same eclipses run their steady cycle." MABEL LOOMIS TODD.

COUNT DE LA FERRONAYS.

PARIS, May 30, 1900.

The success obtained lately by the Memoirs of the present Countess Fernand de la Ferronays—a volume which has given rise to many discussions and comments in French society—will probably contribute in great part to the notoriety of a volume very different in its character, and belonging to severe history, namely, 'Souvenirs Derived from the Papers of Count A. de la Ferronays (1777-1814).' The Souvenirs are edited by the Marquis Costa de Beauregard, member of the French Academy, and well known by the volume which has for its title 'Un Homme d'autrefois.' The Costas de Beauregard are an old family of Savoy, which for many years was devoted to the house of Savoy. Since the annexation to France, some of its branches, which were already established in France, have adopted completely the French nationality. The Marquis Costa, who is the head of the house, took a very honorable part in the war of 1870, and has since applied himself to literary and historical pursuits. The Count de la Ferronays whose papers he now gives to the public with long comments of his own, was an *émigré*, who became Minister of Foreign Affairs during the Restoration, and consequently was of some importance in his time. His diplomatic career is, however, less interesting now than his life in the troubled times of the emigration. He was a modest man, and he did not write real "memoirs." "My career," he said at the age of sixty, "has not been sufficiently marked. I feel neither vanity nor humility enough to write real memoirs." The volume published by M. Costa de Beauregard is therefore made up from the letters and papers which were carefully collected by Count de la Ferronays's widow. "The husband's letters, the wife's notes, such," says M. Costa de Beauregard, "are the elements of this volume."

Count Auguste de la Ferronays was born in October, 1777, at Saint Malo (where Chateaubriand also was born). His mother was a native of San Domingo; his father, Count Eugène de la Ferronays, owned plantations in the West Indies. The boy was educated in a poor old manor-house, lost in the forest of Brittany; his father was almost always either with his regiment or at Versailles, and participated in the Seven Years' War with four of his brothers. "One day, when, on their return from Germany, the La Ferronays brothers came to pay their court at Versailles, 'He! he! there is one missing,' said gayly Louis XV., counting on his fingers." The missing one was precisely the Count Eugène, who had been severely wounded at Brunswick. M. de la Ferronays himself decided to emigrate in the early days of 1790. He came to Brittany to take his son Auguste with him; the boy was only thirteen years old. They went together to Soleure in Switzerland, and joined the Bishop of Lisieux, one of their relations. The boy was placed in a school kept by the Premonstrants of Bellelay; the father joined Condé's army. The Countess de la Ferronays would perhaps have been forgotten if her desire to have news of her husband and son had not brought her to Nantes, where the sanguinary Carrier represented the Convention. She arrived with her two young daughters, who were still children. She was arrested in the street; some good people took pity on the unfortunate girls and offered them their hospitality. The next day, the children took each other by the hand, and would fain have gone to Carrier and ask him to give them back their mother. "Hospitable as they were, these good people

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[M. Costa de Beauregard does not give their name] lost their heads, and, in order to prevent this fatal imprudence, conceived the idea of simply walling the children in a corner of their cellar, leaving only a hole open, through which to hand them their food. . . . They were made free again only after the death of Carrier." They were two skeletons, said Madame de la Ferronays, who gives these details in her notes. The torture of the two children had lasted eleven months. Their mother was kept thirteen months in prison. When she left it, she fainted away, and she died soon afterwards. "Her life had been that of a saint; her death was the death of a martyr."

M. Costa de Beauregard gives us a good account of Condé's army and of his difficulties in Germany. The feelings of the *émigrés* are well understood by him. "To those believers," he says, "the idea of fatherland was so different from what it has become to us! Their princes were to them the incarnation of France. We must believe in the sincerity of witnesses who give their lives. Our skepticism is too much above—or beneath—such an act of faith to allow us to judge them fairly." After 1792, Condé submitted to all the requirements of Austria. His regiment was broken up, his gentlemen reduced to the ranks and to the pay of the meanest pandour. He was himself no more than a lieutenant-general. He could not keep any artillery, as he could not feed his horses. His cavalry officers were obliged to sell their horses and to enter the infantry.

Auguste de la Ferronays won his spurs at Steinstadt. He was very proud of his uniform; the Duke d'Enghien presented him to his new comrades. He saw the King for the first time at Riegel, in May, 1796. Louis XVIII. had been obliged to leave Verona and to cross the Alps; he stayed a little while with Condé's army, and took refuge in Blankenburg, near Brunswick. He accepted afterwards the hospitality of the Czar at Mittau, and Condé's regiments took the road to Volhynia. The Condéens had to make a journey of four hundred leagues. M. de la Ferronays, the father, joined the Duke de Berry at Dubno, taking his family with him. It was thought that he might be a useful guide for a young prince who was twenty years old. M. Costa describes with amusing details the life led at Dubno by the *émigrés*, the Duke de Berry, La Ferronays and his family, the Prince de Condé and his mistress, Madame de Monaco (who ultimately became his wife). The portrait which he traces of the Duke de Berry is far from flattering. "It was said of his mother, Maria Theresa of Savoy, that she spoiled the fine blood of Henry IV." He was ugly, excessively ignorant, capricious, without measure in anything; his youth had known none of the mild influences which contribute to form the man in the child. It was said of La Rochefoucauld that he needed a quarrel every morning and a reconciliation every night. The Duke de Berry was to subject Auguste de la Ferronays to this singular régime for fifteen years. The Prince adopted him as a friend, a companion, a confidant, but this great favor became a real slavery and sometimes an almost intolerable yoke.

War began in March, 1799, and the Condéens learned that they were placed under the orders of Suvaroff. The army left Dubno in May. It marched to Italy in five columns. The two La Ferronays were in the cavalry of the Duke de Berry. The whole family accompanied the army. "We went on," says Madame de la Ferronays, "as if we were going to a feast. Nobody doubted that the war would end by our triumphal entry into France, which we were to deliver. It was for us an enterprise as holy as a crusade, and more gay." Suvaroff was beaten by the French in Switzerland, and it was at Constance that the *émigrés* learned the news of the revolution of the Eighteenth Brumaire. They spent the winter of 1799 in Steyer, the old capital of Styria. The Russian Emperor had got disgusted with the war, with the King of France, and with Condé's army. The Condéens—Austrian, at first, then Russian—became English, and had to receive their pay from England. Condé established himself at Linz. In the spring of 1800 he took the road to Leghorn, as the English Government had resolved to employ his force and to send it first to Minorca, under the orders of Abercromby. The victory of Marengo put an end to these projects, and the Condéens were once more frustrated in their designs. In the campaign which followed, and which, after Hohenlinden, opened for a moment to Moreau the road to Vienna, they were once more among the vanquished.

Condé's army was finally disbanded, and we find La Ferronays now engaged in more pacific pursuits. His life became a sort of Odyssey, as he had to follow the Duke de Berry from place to place. This unrest did not hinder him from marrying; the new Mme. de la Ferronays was Mlle. de Montsoreau; her dowry was an income of twelve hundred francs a year. The wedding took place on the 23d of February, 1802, and was the beginning of the happiest union. The letters of Mme. de la Ferronays are highly creditable to her character, to her elevation of sentiment. Her husband writes to her: "You have made me understand how our marriages in the emigration are better than those which preceded the Revolution. In the latter, interest, ambition, convention replaced this pure love which is found only in poverty."

The Duke de Berry left Germany during the Consulate and set up an establishment in England. La Ferronays joined him there, but seems to have been very unhappy among discontented *émigrés*, separated from his wife. He was acquainted with all the details of the conspiracy of Cadoudal, with the preparations for a landing in Brittany, and lived in a state of continual uneasiness. If he had not been attached to the Duke de Berry, he would probably have met the fate of Cadoudal's accomplices. The arrest and execution of the Duke d'Enghien filled him with horror. When the war broke out between Napoleon and England, La Ferronays returned to Brunswick. We cannot follow him in all his peregrinations, to Warsaw, to Mittau, where he found Louis XVIII. He tried in vain to enter the Russian service; he was more fortunate in Sweden, and obtained a brevet of officer in the Swedish army. He was recalled to London by the Duke de Berry, and had great difficulty in evading Napoleon's police at Hamburg. His disappointments in England were great, and he had much to complain of the temper of his master. After Jena and the total collapse of the Prussian forces, the La Ferronays were obliged to fly to Altona, and finally they again took refuge in England.

What is most characteristic of La Ferronays is the sentiment of absolute loyalty which he bore towards the Duke de Berry, for whom he could not feel much affection or respect. There is in this sentiment of all the *émigrés* for their princes a remnant of the old feeling which we find so often and so well described in the 'Romans de la Table Ronde'—an absolute, a religious devotion to the lord, whatever may be his defects, often his crimes. This feudal sentiment of the man of war who follows a leader through thick and thin, transformed itself and became the sentiment of loyalty to the representatives of legitimacy. But for it, it would be difficult to explain such lives as that of La Ferronays.

Notes.

'China, the Long-Lived Empire,' by Miss Eliza Ruhamah Scidmore, one of the secretaries of the Oriental Congress at Rome last year, and a well-known writer on the Far East, will make a timely appearance with the imprint of the Century Co. It will have a portrait of the Dowager Empress for frontispiece.

Harper & Bros. will bring out a translation, by Daniel B. Vermilye, of Flournoy's 'Des Indes à la planète Mars,' reviewed in last week's *Nation*, and a novel, 'The Dishonor of Frank Scott,' by an English author, M. Hamilton.

A second volume of Prof. Elisha Grey's 'Nature's Miracles,' on Sound, Heat, Light, and Explosives, is in the press of Fords, Howard & Hulbert, to be followed shortly by a third, on Electricity and Magnetism.

Henry Holt & Co. expect to issue within the present month 'Memory,' an inductive study by Prof. F. W. Colegrove of the University of Washington, with an introduction by President G. Stanley Hall of Clark University.

'Old Ocean's Ferry: The Log of the Modern Mariner, the Transatlantic Traveller, and Quaint Facts of Neptune's Realm,' compiled by John Colgate Hoyt, will be published directly by Bonnell, Silver & Co.

Leonard Huxley's 'Life and Letters of Thomas H. Huxley' is set down for autumn publication by D. Appleton & Co.

The late firm of James Pott & Co., in this city, has been succeeded by Edwin S. Gorham.

The supplemental volume to the Clarendon Press Concordance to the Septuagint, by Dr. Hatch and Mr. Redpath, is to be divided into two parts; the first, of proper names. The second will contain the preface, a short concordance, showing the Hebrew equivalents to the Greek in the lately discovered fragments of Ecclesiasticus; a concordance to the additional words to be found in the Hexaplaric fragments which have come to light since the publication of the original work, including the fragments shortly to be published by Dr. Mercati of the Vatican Library, who has placed at the disposal of the editor an index to those fragments; and finally, an index to the Hebrew of the whole work.

The 'Victoria History of the Counties of England' is the title of a work announced to be published by Messrs. A. Constable & Co., London, in a series of 160 volumes of

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large imperial octavo. The editor is Mr. H. Arthur Doubleday, F.R.G.S., aided by an advisory council containing representatives from the universities and the various learned societies. The architectural history and the searching of records will be superintended by two auxiliary committees, while each county will have its separate editorial staff. Among the subjects treated will be "all the phases of ecclesiastical history; the changes in land tenure; the records of historic and local families; the history of the social life and sports of the villages and towns; the development of art, science, manufactures and industries." A supplementary volume will be issued for each county, containing the pedigrees of the present county families, and illustrations of the arms of the families mentioned in the Heralds' Visitations. There will be many thousands of illustrations and about four hundred maps. The price to subscribers of the whole series is fixed at 240 guineas, but each history of a county is complete in itself and will be sold separately. Hampshire, including the Isle of Wight, will be the first of the series to be issued.

Lemcke & Buechner, 812 Broadway, will supply the American market with the important pioneer 'Catalogo Generale della Libreria Italiana dall' anno 1847 a tutto il 1899.' In one author-alphabet will be embraced the Italian publications for the period designated, both in the peninsula and abroad. A subject-index will follow. The work is in charge of the librarian Pagliani, and will be issued in monthly parts of 80 pages, at 75 cents each, with a prospective total of 2,800 pages. Italy will thus, while following our example, better our instruction, since for the moment our 'American Catalogue' dates back only to such books as were in print in 1876.

Mr. John D. Champlin's illustrated 'Young Folks' Cyclopædia of Persons and Places' (Henry Holt & Co.) reaches its third edition in twenty years of favor, and with considerable additions now fills nearly 1,000 pages. McKinley and the shining names of the Spanish war are among the newcomers, but, by a natural preference for men of spectacular action in such a work as this, the editor admits Hobson and omits Gen. Leonard Wood. A faulty perspective is likewise shown in yielding a place to so fleeting a name as that of Stephen Crane. Marconi well deserves his entry, but one looks in vain for Crispi. Palmer Cox and Olive Thorne Miller have afforded pleasure and instruction enough to young folks to warrant some account of them; but Kenyon Cox and Elliott Coues have respectively a better title to be known to the rising generation curious about art or ornithology or American exploration. St. Gaudens's masterpiece, by the way, the Shaw monument, goes unmentioned. The sketch of Edison is marred by its style and by its insisting on his boyish precocity. Wendell Phillips and Frederick Douglass and Carl Schurz are still wanting in this Cyclopædia, which ought not to be deficient on the side of American oratory. The Greater American Diaz has no article to himself. Africa is described wholly from the physical point of view, and no political map is given, though the formation of it is perhaps the most striking world incident of the century now closing. And what should an American boy make of these sentences from the inadequate notice of Rousseau? "Writing books . . . which did a great deal of harm by the ideas he put forth. Some of these are that all men are born equal."

Last November there came to light in a London sale a manuscript copy of a metrical translation of Bürger's "Lenore" by the late Dante Rossetti. As no scrap of greatness must nowadays go unprinted, a handsome thin quarto volume has been made of this version, and published in London by Ellis & Elvey. The poet's brother William, as usual, supplies an introduction, which tells of Dante's early experiments in rendering the German into English, and also reviews the English versions of "Lenore," which are on the whole not an inspiring lot. M. W. M. Rossetti thinks his brother's intrinsically worth printing, apart from the fact that it was written by a boy of sixteen; and we agree with him. It is spirited, and it is not so manifest a translation as to be hard reading; but it is free, like the man Rossetti's dealings with the Italian.

Any Irish Rip Van Winkle, falling asleep five years ago, and now awakening and opening 'Spring and Autumn in Ireland,' dedicated by the British Unionist Poet Laureate to "The Brave and Gifted Irish People," would indeed open his eyes in astonishment. But so it is: subject peoples are esteemed by their rulers as it suits their purpose to esteem them. We have here, in a thin volume published by Macmillan, full appreciation of the charms of Irish scenery, much (rather patronizing) appreciation of Irish kindliness, a not unfair conception of Irish shortcomings, much misapprehension of causes, too great a belief that differences between English and Irish are due to inherent dispositions rather than to history and environment. There is scarcely a page concerning which all but Imperialists and Unionists of the *Spectator* type might not have much to say. Mr. Austin at the first eschews controversy "over the Irish question," yet, especially in the poem with which he concludes, raises it in its worst form in the minds of most who have thought and felt deeply thereupon. The book is too freely scattered with quotations in foreign languages—we have counted sixteen in the ninety-six pages of prose. It will add to the self-satisfaction with which the average British tourist visits Ireland. It will bring strong expressions to the lips of many Irishmen, and yet give them somewhat upon which they might well ponder.

We spoke at some length of the series called 'The World's Orators' (Putnams) on the appearance of the first volume. The second is devoted to orators of ancient Rome; and C. Gracchus, Cato, Cicero, the elder Seneca, Quintilian, Pliny the Younger, and Florus find places in it. There are also speeches selected from the histories of Sallust, Livy, and Tactitus. The introduction is thoughtful and interesting; the translations are in general correct and not without spirit. The book itself is beautifully printed on excellent paper, and contains half-a-dozen illustrations purporting to be likenesses of the orators. The editors wisely refuse to vouch for the authenticity of these, but they might at least have omitted the fancy sketch ("from an old copper print") of the Elder Pliny and his book of animals, which they have called 'Pliny the Second.'

Any one who wishes a brief popular sketch of monachism guaranteed to avoid carefully any dwelling on the unpleasant, and to leave in the mind a comfortable sense of peace with all men, may turn safely to A. W. Wishart's 'Short History of Monks and Monasteries' (Trenton, N. J.: Albert Brandt). The book covers the ground fairly well and in a light, easy style, but the covering everywhere is very thin. Its centre is England; there its threads run together, and the account of the suppression of the English monasteries is the only part which enters upon any details. In marked contrast is the section dealing with the military orders; it is meagre in the extreme. The four pages of bibliography prefixed are also English only, and Schaff's 'Nicene Fathers,' Scott's 'Monastery,' and Smith's 'Student's Ecclesiastical History' jostle one another in pleasing medley. And those "authorities" have been freely used. If all the direct quotations from them were cut out, there would be a marked shrinkage in bulk. Mr. Wishart, also, has carefully avoided any independent judgments, brawling or otherwise. Brawling, indeed, is far from him; his paths lie through placid calms. Externally, the book is charmingly got up; beautifully printed on excellent paper, with rough edges and gilt top. The scientific and artistic ideals of the Brandt Press, which produces it, are evidently higher than those of its author.

Dr. Henry Hayman's 'Epistles of the New Testament: An Attempt to Present them in Current and Popular Idiom' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan) is excellent as a commentary, but hardly satisfactory as a version. The sense—or, rather, *a* sense—is brought out with great clearness, better than by pages of exposition, but we cannot believe that the form is how the Apostles "would have expressed themselves if the vernacular English of our own day had been their medium of expression." But apart from this the problem is essentially insoluble. The old phrases haunt our ears with their mysteries of association and melody. "So vast a cloud of attesting spectators" will never take the place of "so great a cloud of witnesses," nor does "the cherished object of my heart" compare as English with "my heart's desire." But if the rendering be taken simply as a paraphrase, such criticism is wide of the mark; as a paraphrase it will be very helpful. The book is beautifully printed, page for page with the Authorized Version.

The Jewish Publication Society of America (Philadelphia) has just added to the books issued by it a translation by Henrietta Szold of Part i. of the 'Ethik des Judenthums' (the Ethics of Judaism) of Prof. Moritz Lazarus of Berlin. In the awakening interest in Judaism—hostile and friendly, scientific and popular—which is a feature of the time, such a book as this by the veteran founder of the *Zeitschrift für Völkerpsychologie* must play an important part. It is marked by the attitude of mind of the comparative psychologist, but in it there is no comparative psychology. Comparison means apologetics; apologetics mean polemics; and what part can ethics have in polemics? "If thou wave thy sword over an altar, thou hast polluted it." So we have here a sympathetic and incisive sketch of the ethical principles of the later Judaism, that vast exercising ground of bizarre mental gymnastics. The difficulties in the case are great, but have been fairly met. Strictly, Judaism can have no philosophical ethics; morality for the Jew is based on the nature of God. Only in the

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pseudo-Aristotelianism of Maimonides is another starting-point posited. But while this theological origin is admitted—or, rather, emphasized—the idea of the morality of God is so developed as to permit an ethical treatment of human morality. This, of course, involves more or less of squaring of the circle; the Socratic riddle, Do the gods do a thing because it is right, or is it right because the gods do it? is not to be so easily answered. In the first part three chapters of the original work are included, those on the Sources, on the Principle, and on the Character of Jewish Ethics. The translation is good, but might read more easily.

The Dent-Macmillan series of Temple Primers has lately been increased by Mr. Lionel D. Barnett's sketch of 'The Greek Drama.' This concise treatise, while "claiming no spark of originality," has followed recent and eminent authorities—chiefly the German—and may be commended as a skilful and conscientious piece of condensation. Nowhere, indeed, can so many minute facts be found on its subject in so small a compass, since it treats of the origins of tragedy and comedy, the literary history of both, the structure and development of the Greek theatre, and finds room also within one hundred pages for the insertion of about a dozen well-chosen plans and illustrations. There are statements and views which one naturally marks with an interrogation point; but a primer is, in this branch, only a series of texts to preach from by way of expansion or limitation, and the author may fairly be excused for his dogmatism, if the reader is warned that the last word has not been said. The references are unexceptionable, as far as they go; the author shows no acquaintance with French works on his topic, yet his view of Euripides, for instance, might have been modified by a reading of Decharme. The index is good, and displays a hyper-conscientiousness in proper names, *e. g.*, Sekyon, Semonides.

Dr. John Macpherson's 'Mental Affections: An Introduction to the Study of Insanity' (Macmillan) is an excellent treatise, clearly written, so far as the difficulties of the subject allow, and not calling for adverse criticism so long as one remains in sympathy with the author's mode of approaching the subject. Those who are interested—and who is not?—in the engrossing subject of insanity, are aware that, in the study of its problems, emphasis may be laid preeminently upon either the psychological, the anatomical, or the clinical methods, and some may be aware that, within the last few years, a school has risen into prominence, mainly under the guidance of the German physician Kraepelin, by which the claims of the clinical method have been more especially urged. We must have a classification of mental diseases, they say, and for this it is unsafe to take analyses of the psychologist, who often misses the broad features of a life-long illness in his analysis of special symptoms. The name of Kraepelin occurs but once or twice in Dr. Macpherson's book. On the other hand, his psychological chapters and his studies of the laws of degeneration and genesis of symptoms are admirable, even if one may not wholly agree with the conclusions. The clinical part of the book is good, but not, as we have intimated, sufficiently prominent.

French reviewers cannot bear the thought that their articles are to pass away with the weekly or monthly issue of the journal or review for which they have been written, and as their work is usually careful, the various articles speedily reappear in book form. There is too much of this sort of thing, yet in M. Gaston Deschamps's fifth volume of 'La Vie et les Livres' (Paris: Colin & Cie.) there are three articles that one rereads with pleasure—those on Théophile Gautier, on Anatole France, and on Paul Bourget. In each of these there is food for thought, and some keen appreciation of the writers and their works.

In a pamphlet entitled 'De l'Émancipation de la femme musulmane' (Lisieux), the Russian Orientalist, Madame Olga de Lededer, has published her address delivered at the International Congress of Orientalists at Rome in October last. Her attainments in Turkish and Arabic, and, especially, her intimate associations with the women of the Mohammedan Orient during many journeys in those countries, enables her to give information on a matter the existence of which was, perhaps, not even suspected by the outsider. Yet her report shows that the woman question exists, at least in its beginnings, in the Orient, although chiefly through contact with the ideas and ideals of Western civilization. She declares that the equality of women with the men is not inconsistent with the Arabic type of civilization. Considerable influence in this direction has been exerted by the schools for native girls established by France in Algiers and Tunis. A society is being organized at present in St. Petersburg for the purpose of elevating the rank of Moslem women. The *Italie* of Rome recently reported that Kassima Emin Bey, a prominent judicial official in Cairo, had come out with a plea for the better education of women, for freedom in selecting her own husband, and for denying the absolute right of divorce to the husband. The new programme culminates in a proposal to abolish polygamy.

The July number of the *American Historical Review* will contain articles by Prof. George B. Adams of Yale on "The Critical Period of English Constitutional History"; Mr. Hubert Hall, F.S.A., of the Public Record Office, on "Chatham's Colonial Policy"; Prof. Max Ferrand, on "Territory and District," and "The Judiciary Act of 1801"; Mr. Howard L. Wilson, on "President Buchanan's Proposed Intervention in Mexico." Noteworthy also is a series of letters by Col. Ebenezer Huntington of the Revolutionary Army, extending from the siege of Boston to the siege of Yorktown.

Two articles in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June speak to the eye as well as to the intelligence. One is President Eliot's sketch of the life of the late Prof. Charles Franklin Dunbar, whose typical Yankee face (in spite of Scotch descent) prefaces the text, and anticipates what the biographer has to say of his speculative mind and shy habit, along with his services to daily journalism during the civil war, and to instruction in political economy at Harvard subsequently. The other illustration is of a Meleager torso loaned indefinitely to the Fogg Art Museum, and discussed by Mr. Richard Norton, Director of the American School at Rome.

A supplementary number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* has been published, containing the proceedings of the Society of which it is the organ at its annual meeting, together with brief biographies of members deceased. Among the noteworthy names are W. E. Gladstone, Hannibal Hamlin, Bishop Perry, and J. M. Forbes. In the address of the President, reference is made to the approaching completion of a consolidated index to the first fifty volumes of the *Register*. It is estimated that this will contain "no less than 600,000 names of persons, besides 200,000 of families, and about 150,000 of places"! The "Genealogical Gleanings in England," by Henry F. Waters, which have formed an important feature of the *Register* for the past seventeen years, have been rearranged for a book edition, making three volumes of over 500 pages each, which, it is hoped, will soon be published.

The last number of the *Bibliothèque Universelle et Revue Suisse* contains a capital article by M. Tallichet on "L'Opinion publique et la guerre africaine." The writer corrects a good many popular errors and misapprehensions, and, incidentally, dresses down M. Brunetière in a way not calculated to displease impartial observers. There is also an interesting review of 'Richard Carvel' from the foreign standpoint, and the usual full conspectus of affairs in various parts of the world, the latter being one of the strong attractions of the *Bibliothèque*.

—No. 9 of the Bulletin of the Department of State is dated October, 1897, but has only recently been published. It contains another instalment of the Miscellaneous Index, and a "literal print of Madison's Notes of Debates in the Federal Convention." Interest naturally centres upon these Notes, although they are incomplete in parts, and the manner of printing makes certain sections almost unintelligible. It is a pity that economy was carried so far as to omit resort to the cancelled letter, much used in the Public Printing-Office in printing bills, for this would have rendered unnecessary the repetition of explanatory phrases. Nor is the distinction between the two sizes of type clearly drawn. It is probable that Madison dressed his notes before making a fair copy, and the insertions and alterations have consequently been distinguished from the original text; but it may be doubted if this minute attention has produced commensurate results. The issue, however interesting, will never supersede the Gilpin edition, and a facsimile reproduction would have been of far higher value, and given to the eye what the formal type can never convey. The remarks on p. 193 require most careful study and the aid of Gilpin to be comprehended, and this is only one instance among many.

—How far do the Notes add to what has already appeared in print? Only a phrase here and there, and a word rejected by Madison in his revision. The comment of Lansing on Hamilton, "The greatest objection against whose ideas in general was perhaps, the repugnance of the people to them," is all the more illuminative because Madison struck it out. So Franklin is made to speak of the "mock establishment of the papal system," but, in printing, Gilpin omitted "mock." The verbal differences between Gilpin and the Bulletin are many, and frequently suggestive. King is made by Gilpin to say that the people had "impliedly" given their sanction to the confederation, but the Bulletin uses the word *implicitly* (p. 66). Dickinson asserted, according to Gilpin, that the Senate, with a long term of service, could "*check* and de-

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cide with becoming freedom": but the proper word was *speak*, as the Bulletin shows (p. 75). Other examples may be found on p. 90 of the Bulletin, where *reclaim* is used for *restrain* in Gilpin; p. 145, *present* for *private;* p. 156, *intent* for *extent;* p. 174, *bearing* for *leaning;* and p. 220, *terms* for *times*. Some few errors have crept into this text. *Proposition* in the last line on p. 77 should be *proportion; imports* on p. 102 should be *imposts;* and *facts* on p. 190 should be *parts*. The contraction for McClurg on p. 94 is wrong. An index of more than 100 pages is proof of the care bestowed by Mr. Allen upon this issue of the Bulletin, and it is a welcome promise of some activity on the part of the Government in making accessible its store of historical manuscripts.

—In noticing from time to time the series of public-school histories which has been recently appearing, we have more than once expressed the desire that some competent person would write an account of the actual working of the English "Public School" system as it exists to-day. This wish is to some extent met by the new series of Handbooks to the great Public Schools now being issued by Messrs. Bell in London and the Macmillan Co. in New York. The two volumes now before us—'Rugby,' by H. C. Bradby, and 'Charterhouse,' by A. H. Tod—are well written, and will serve excellently their evident purpose, which is, doubtless, to show the British parent what sort of place it is he is thinking of sending his boy to. They describe the daily routine of the school, the division into "sides" and "forms," and the position and traditions of the several "houses"; and both print a copy of the present time-table of studies. Mr. Tod, not having so much to tell in the way of traditions, finds room for a special chapter on Expenses. Perhaps it is for the same reason that instead of thirty-six pages, which is Mr. Bradby's allowance, he devotes fifty-two pages to the subject of school games. The story of Charterhouse should be particularly interesting to American readers; it shows how quickly a brand-new school, under a capable and sympathetic head-master, such as was Dr. Haig Brown, may gather around itself a fund of loyalty and common associations of an ennobling sort. For it was really very little that the new Charterhouse, planted on the hill-top out at Godalming in 1872, carried on from the old Charterhouse of Thackeray in the heart of London. Recent events will justify one brief quotation from the Charterhouse volume. "Baden-Powell, who kept goal in 1875-6, took a very liberal view of a goal-keeper's functions. His voice enabled him to direct the forwards at the other end of the ground, and his agility enabled him to cheer the spectators with impromptu dances when he had nothing pressing to do." Both books are lavishly illustrated with pictures both of exteriors and interiors; there are maps of the school grounds and descriptions of the several buildings. They will, therefore, serve as superior guide-books for visitors, and will also give the American reader who cannot visit the places a very fair notion of what an English "Public School" is.

—We record with very deep regret the death in Boston, on June 14, of William Henry Whitmore, City Registrar. Mr. Whitmore was one of the oldest contributors to the *Nation*, having joined the staff of its reviewers in 1869, and he continued to write for this journal even down to and during his fatal illness, which involved a long confinement to the house. He was, past question, the foremost genealogist in the country, and his private library, in this vein, was one of the largest and most valuable extant. It embraced numerous works compiled by himself, especially the indispensable catalogue entitled 'The American Genealogist,' which appeared in more than one edition. He was at one time an editor of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, founded the *Heraldic Journal*, and was one of the founders of the *Historical Magazine*, as also of the Prince Society and the Boston Antiquarian Society. His ingenious 'Ancestral Tablets' has won him the gratitude of thousands eager to discover and to conveniently display their pedigree. Other books from his pen were 'The Cavalier Dismounted,' a tract on the character of Southern colonial immigration; 'Elements of Heraldry,' a 'History of the Old State House, Boston,' and interesting monographs on Mother Goose, early Boston engravers, etc. He edited the Hutchinson Papers, Andros Tracts and Praed's Poetical Works. He was for eight years a member of the Boston Common Council, and used his position to advantage in procuring the appointment of Commissioners of Public Records, serving gratuitously—himself among them—who rescued from perishing and put in print, at small cost to the city, important early Boston records, with vital statistics of early churches in the vicinity. He was also enabled to take a leading part in saving the Old State House from destruction, and in restoring the legislative chambers to their pristine condition; and to fix its destiny, he founded the Bostonian Society, which has been its custodian ever since, and has made it one of the most interesting museums in the Puritan capital. In this pious antiquarianism he used to say that he received more aid from the descendants of the Irish immigrants of 1846 than from the blue blood of Beacon Street, which was disposed to make way with the old landmark for the widening of State Street. He could seldom be persuaded to leave Boston, and no more intense lover of it could be named, nor one whose services to it were more disinterested. Mr. Whitmore was born in Dorchester, Mass., September 6, 1836. He was educated at the Public Latin School, and in due course should have gone to Harvard, but a difference with the principal discouraged him. He received the A.M. degree from Harvard in 1867, and simultaneously from Williams College. He possessed a most active and curious mind, was an entertaining writer, and was capable of very warm friendships. Boston has not, for a long time, lost a more individual citizen, or a truer. Mr. Whitmore was late in marrying. His wife and a son survive him.

—M. Marcel Prévost, in the *Journal des Débats*, has drawn attention to the very striking resemblance between the initial situation and development of Gabriele D'Annunzio's new novel, 'Il Fuoco,' and an episode in the life of the author to which the press of Italy had given European notoriety. This long-winded and wholly unedifying narrative of a love adventure implies, M. Prévost held, a breach of reticence not to be atoned for by the artistic pretensions of the conception, and totally unworthy of one so fortunate as to win the smiles of a woman of genius. The rule of kissing and not telling applies to the author as an author, as well as to the gentleman. To this, D'Annunzio offers a most inadequate reply. The confusion of a political election in which he is interested presents the opportunity for a hasty telegraphic denial of having drawn on private experiences for his novel, and an expression of chagrin at being taken to task by a member of his own confraternity, who is himself not entirely beyond reproach in this very respect. It is always possible to shirk such an issue as this by saying with Pailleron, when accused of a kindred offence in "Le Monde où l'on s'ennuie," "l'on trouve toujours des portraits dans la comédie de mœurs, comme on se trouve toujours des maladies dans les livres de médecine." The Italian author, while demanding the widest license for all worshippers of *la pura bellezza*, disclaims any intention of betraying to the public what might have been intended for one pair of ears alone. 'Il Fuoco,' he protests, is a work of pure imagination, designed to set forth part of its author's synthetic philosophy of the beautiful, already sketched in 'Le Vergini delle Rocce.' That some of its leading incidents should suggest what the public knows already, and that the chief personages are the most prominent decadent poet and the foremost actress of the day—both Italians—are coincidences and nothing more.

FISKE'S MISSISSIPPI VALLEY.

The Mississippi Valley in the Civil War. By John Fiske. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Crown 8vo, pp. xxv, 368.

Mr. Fiske's delightful vigor of narration, which has made his long series of books on early American history so attractive, does not disappoint us in this new volume on the history of our own time. His own long association with St. Louis and the Washington University there has given him local intimacies which have been put to good use in lending color to the critical opening period of the civil war in the West. It was in doubtful States like Missouri and Kentucky, where Unionists and Secessionists were equally ready to fight for their creeds, that the revolutionary form of the struggle took on its most distinctive type, and the local intensity of it can be fully understood only by those who, like Mr. Fiske, have absorbed its traditions on the spot, and have enjoyed familiar acquaintance with men, like Colonel Gantt, who were part of the history from the beginning. The diminished prominence of Frank Blair, jr., in the latter part of his life has made many men forgetful of the commanding rôle he played in Missouri in 1861, and of the daring, the intellectual leadership, the courageous and far-sighted patriotism, the executive ability and initiative, which united to make him the necessary chief of the loyalists. Mr. Fiske's appreciative characterization of him does no more than justice. Blair became a soldier of high reputation well earned, but we may doubt whether his more appropriate career would not have been found in the statesmanship of civil life which marked the ablest of

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the War Governors who upheld Lincoln's hands.

Mr. Fiske's sketch of the steady progression of events "from the seizure of Camp Jackson in 1861 down to the appearance of Sherman's army in the rear of Virginia in 1865" shows a strong grasp of the real meaning of the campaigns in the West, of their relation to the war regarded in its unity, and in its true historical perspective. The swift initiative of Lyon and Blair, which demoralized the secession leaders, and imposed their own will upon the course of events in Missouri, is admirably exhibited, as is Lyon's heroism at Wilson's Creek, where ended his all too short career that promised so much for the country. The beginnings of Grant's military service are also appreciatively told, with due regard to his early exhibition of the qualities which were the essential conditions of his final military preëminence. As to both Grant and Sherman Mr. Fiske is frank in cordial admiration. Criticism is made of both, as is the historian's privilege, and more or less of comparison is made with Gens. Buell, Rosecrans, and Thomas, whose campaigns also come within the scope of the work.

The author tells us that the book has grown out of a course of lectures delivered by him at various times from 1886 onward, with the addition of material written both before and after. It is here that we find the marks of such limitations as may be noted in Mr. Fiske's treatment of his theme and the prominent figures in it. By far the greater part of the Official Records of the war has been published since the lectures were first delivered. On a number of interesting points, much debated, very bright light has been thrown. We think Mr. Fiske's conclusions would, in those cases, have been modified had he been writing anew the fuller history of the period which he encourages us to hope he may yet give us. Among the points referred to are the justice and statesmanship of the changes in army commanders made by Mr. Lincoln in 1862 and 1863; the competence of Gen. Grant to command an army, his duty to pursue the enemy instantly upon the close of the battle of Shiloh, the similar duty of Buell after Perryville, and of Rosecrans after Stone's River; the strategy of the Vicksburg campaign, that of Sherman at Dalton, on the march to the sea and through the Carolinas; the number of troops in Thomas's army in November, 1864, Grant's urgency upon Thomas to resume the aggressive immediately after the battle of Franklin, etc. On all these points Mr. Fiske shows the influence of a coterie of able writers who adopted the theory that Mr. Lincoln was an incompetent in war administration, and that Grant and Sherman were, as army commanders, inferior to the officers whom they superseded or followed. Want of space would prevent the collation of new evidence on these points, but a brief summary on one of them will indicate the manner in which a fresh study would probably modify the author's judgment.

Mr. Fiske propounds the question why Beauregard at Shiloh "was not persistently followed up and harassed," adding that Grant "never offered any sound explanation." He has so fully stated Grant's military characteristics in detail that we might fairly expect him to give the General the benefit of the presumption that his action in this case had a "sound explanation." Immediately after the capture of Fort Donelson, Grant had pressed upon Halleck the prompt pursuit of Sidney Johnston, and, pending Halleck's consideration of it, he had gone to Nashville to concert action with Buell, with whom one of his divisions had made a junction. His going was treated as an offence and he was threatened with arrest for it. Mr. Lincoln's sagacity so well appreciated the promise of Grant's victory that he brought Halleck to book by a demand for specifications of Grant's faults, that they might be fairly investigated; and Grant himself twice asked to be relieved from service with Halleck, intending to follow it by a demand for a court of inquiry. This brought a withdrawal of complaints; but Halleck's duplicity used Lincoln's order and his own disclaimer to prove to Grant that the trouble originated at Washington, and that the General was indebted to him for a vindication. Grant believed this, and gratitude made him almost painfully solicitous to follow Halleck's directions to the letter, and not to incur new danger of reprimand by going beyond them. This is plainly seen in the whole correspondence of the month of March. His perception of the importance of chasing the retreating enemy after Donelson in 1862 is as evident as it was after Five Forks in 1865. He was the same man if less experienced.

Halleck had no purpose of putting Buell under Grant's command, but had informed them both that he should be with them by the time the junction of their forces could be made at the Tennessee River. On March 23 he wrote to Stanton that Grant's orders were "to make no important movements" till Buell joined him. On the 24th he wrote to Buell that "a battle should be avoided for the present, and until we can concentrate a larger army," and directed him to send a copy of this to Grant. On the 26th Halleck writes to Buell concerning the latter's suggestion as to a plan of campaign, indicating general approval, and adding: "I propose to join you as soon as you reach the Tennessee." On Saturday, April 5, the day before the battle, he notified Buell in a dispatch that he could not leave St. Louis "till the first of next week." The same day he directed Grant to "act in concert" with Buell, adding, "He will exercise his separate command, unless the enemy should attack you. In that case, you are authorized to take the general command." The battle raged through Sunday and Monday. Buell's forces (but not all) crossed the river on Sunday night, and on Monday morning, under Grant's orders, both armies advanced, and, in an all-day fight, drove the Confederates from the field. At the close of the engagement, Grant went back to the Landing, and sent a note to Buell saying that his intention had been "to occupy the most advanced position possible for the night with the infantry engaged through the day, and follow up our success with cavalry and fresh troops," which he had expected to arrive during his last visit to the front. These were, of course, part of Buell's, which had not yet reached the field. As these had not come, the condition of his own raw troops, who had fought and marched two days (and he might have added their partial disorganization), "would preclude the idea of making any advance to-night without the arrival of the expected reinforcements." He had, therefore, left the front with the expectation of pressing the pursuit through the night with fresh cavalry and infantry; but, finding they were not yet available, he did not think it best to disturb again the tired infantry at "the most advanced position" they had been able to reach during daylight.

Here is "sound explanation" for not continuing what is rarely practicable or useful, a night pursuit in a wooded country, over bad roads, with weary and fasting troops. He said that instructions had been sent to his subordinates "not included in your command" to be ready to find the enemy in the morning. He gave Buell no orders, and Buell did not volunteer. An abundantly sufficient reason for this is found in the other sentences of the same dispatch: "Under the instructions which I have previously received, and a dispatch also of to-day from Major-General Halleck, it will not *then* do to advance beyond Pea Ridge or some point which we can reach and return [from] in a day. General Halleck will probably be here himself to-morrow." Buell had the same information as to Halleck, and the necessity of leaving the general-in-chief free from trammels in starting his own campaign, as well as these orders, more than justified both officers in restricting themselves to what was barely necessary. That Halleck meant that they should do so is shown by his later as well as his earlier dispatches. Instead of reaching Pittsburgh Landing on the 8th (Tuesday), he said to Grant on that day, "I leave to join you to-morrow. Show this to General Buell." On the 9th (Wednesday) he added: "I leave immediately to join you with considerable reinforcements. Avoid another battle, if you can, till all arrive. We then shall be able to beat them without fail." This was in reply to Grant's dispatch of Monday evening, in which the latter had said: "I shall follow to-morrow far enough to see that no immediate renewal of an attack is contemplated."

The reading of this correspondence shows the strict limitations as a subordinate under which Grant was acting, especially as to any initiative of his own, for which he had been mercilessly snubbed. It accounts for Buell's attitude of coöperation rather than of willing subordination. It explains Grant's acquiescence in this with the manifest conviction that it best fitted Halleck's wishes, in a juncture when the real commander of both had intended to be present. It shows, too, the magnanimity of Grant's brief report which did not urge Halleck's orders as explanation, but mentioned only the surrounding physical conditions as a reason for not pushing the pursuit of the enemy. And this was done when newspaper correspondents were already inspired by hostile influences, of a kind that may be seen in General McClernand's irregular and unauthorized communication directly to the President, a week after the battle.

Were Mr. Fiske writing the story of that time from all the sources now available, he would not treat Grant's power and responsibility as that of a general who had organized and disciplined his whole army, and planned a campaign as its real commander. A leader in fetters, as he was, and under such orders, is not to be held to a standard of judgment for autocrats like "Frederick or Napoleon" at the head of their veteran divisions. A similar analysis of the Records would show the need of similar revision of

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the author's conclusions in others of the disputed questions we have mentioned.

Passages in a Wandering Life. By Thomas Arnold, M.A. London: Edward Arnold; New York: John Lane. Pp. ix, 268. Portrait.

With no ordinary interest we opened this book by a son of Dr. Arnold of Rugby, by the father of Mrs. Humphry Ward, a man known twice to have embraced the Roman Catholic faith, and consequently once to have departed from it. We are not disappointed. We are favored with the recollections of a transparently honest man, reared amidst the best of English surroundings, who can claim relationship and friendship with some of the best minds in the country, who has travelled much and thought more. It is written in a limpid style and a broad spirit. One-third of the volume is devoted to a nine years' residence in New Zealand and Tasmania, where Mr. Arnold married, and embraced Roman Catholicism, where the future Mrs. Humphry Ward was born; fifty pages are given to recent short visits to Sweden and to Rome; the rest of the book is occupied with Mr. Arnold's life in England and Ireland.

He displays a singular faculty for the description of natural scenery. A notebook written on the plan of the last chapter would be a delightful companion in Rome. He has the ability to make interesting the narrative of a voyage. But then a voyage A. D. 1847 in a sailing ship, conveying some of the first New Zealand settlers, affords more scope than one of the present day in a steamer, with the date of arrival at the antipodes assured. We have entertaining notes on colonial settlement and bush life. The deepest interests of the book are, however, personal and spiritual. In the lives of many of Mr. Arnold's associates we realize afresh the extent to which the best-trained minds in England are brought into political service. We find many noteworthy individual sketches. Of Wordsworth:

"I must therefore give my own impressions, which range intermittently over a period of fifteen years. Wordsworth's figure was of a rather coarse make, and his step was heavy; the eyes were weak, and usually protected in some way or other; the aquiline nose was too large and thick to be called beautiful, and the mouth and chin, though far from weak, were without distinction. It was the beauty and nobility of the head, the width and poise of the forehead, the manifest adaptation of the 'tenement of clay' to house a majestic and many-sided intellect, which atoned for all minor shortcomings, and fixed the admiring gaze of the beholder. Clough's head, too, was beautiful, but Clough's head was not equal to Wordsworth's. Though capacious, it seemed hardly equal to the burden and stress of thought which it sometimes had to bear; in Wordsworth, one would say—setting humor aside—it was equal to *all* thoughts, and incapable of being disturbed from the just balance in which its Creator had poised it. Wordsworth, however, was a great poet, and his life was lived in a sense apart; and though he could discuss trivialities and domestic matters, and sometimes seem heartily amused by them, I suppose there was a general want of practicality, and the *esprit positif*, about him which raised a barrier between him and the Westmoreland people."

Of Mrs. Quillinan:

"Dora Quillinan was Wordsworth's only daughter. From the first time that I ever saw her, when Rydal Lake was frozen over and she gave my brother and me some useful hints with regard to skating upon it, the sense of unbounded confidence in her kind eyes, or rather in the tenderness or goodness which beamed from them, never left either of us."

Of Southey:

"Southey, though he lived far away at Keswick, was brought near to our daily interests by Wordsworth's affection for him. When I was about ten, and my brother a year older, my father took us with him one day to call at Greta Bank. As we shyly advanced, Southey rose up and came to meet us, shook hands with us both, and said with a smile, 'So, now, you've seen a live poet!' He was in no way handsome, but had the look of a hard student. Again I saw him in 1839, when Wordsworth brought him to call at Fox How."

Of Clough:

"In the years 1842-47 I was in close intimacy with Arthur Hugh Clough. . . . Between 1843 and 1845 there was a small society in existence at Oxford called the Decade. Among its members were Jowett, Arthur Stanley, Coleridge [afterwards Chief Justice], my brother, Chichester Fortescue, John Campbell Shairp, the present writer, and several others. Shairp has described two speeches made by Clough at meetings of the Decade. The impressions of the future professor of poetry seem to have been in unison with my own—that no member of the society spoke in so rich, penetrating, original, and convincing strain as Clough. He was not rapid, yet neither was he slow or hesitating; he seemed just to take time enough to find the right word or phrase."

Of Dean Stanley:

"But the charm and fascination of his society cannot thus [from Mr. Prothero's Life] be adequately understood. Spontaneity, genuineness, simplicity, characterized all that he did and said—nay, were distinctive of every movement and gesture." "None that ever knew him could forget his engaging and delightful personality. The eyes, of heaven's own blue; the short, dark, hair curling over his head, till age straightened it somewhat and turned it gray; the quick, short steps; the beautiful, childlike mouth; the eager, animated talk—the total impression of energy, guilelessness, courage, and veracity—who, to the end of the longest life, could forget all this?"

We have a somewhat ungracious reminiscence of the author's brother, Matthew Arnold:

"The whole family went up to Oxford in January, 1842, when my father read his first course of lectures as professor of modern history. My brother, in all the glory of a scholar's gown and three months' experience as a 'university man,' welcomed his rustic *Geschwister* with an amused and superior graciousness. We visited him at his rooms in Balliol at the top of the second staircase in the corner of the second quod. When he had got us all safely in, he is said to have exclaimed, 'Thank God, you are in!' and when the visit was over, and he had seen the last of us out on the staircase, 'Thank God, you are out!' But this tradition is doubtful."

Considering that Prof. Arnold's residence in Tasmania was during the most crucial period of the convict régime, it is to be remarked that he has nothing generally to say upon the subject; nor does he mention the names of Smith O'Brien, John Mitchel, or any of the 1848 Irish prisoners; nor at home, and long in Ireland, has he, except upon the Catholic University question, anything special to say upon home politics.

It was the Oxford Movement that bore him into Catholicism. It was his ingrained liberal tendencies that carried him out of it for a time—according to his own account, partly ill-health, partly failure sufficiently to distinguish between Liberalism in politics and in religion. Through all, he is never carried away by the enthusiasm of the neophyte. In Rome he "reluctantly, yet with full conviction," arrived at the belief "that it is now impossible for the lay people of united Italy (if it be assumed that the Italian Kingdom will endure), to consent to the installation of any other Italian city as the capital of that Kingdom." In Sweden, once Catholic, now so but to the extent of 1,390 in 5,000,000 of the population, which he visited mainly to see the Shrine of St. Bridget, he again "reluctantly admits," "the prospects of Catholicism . . . do not appear brilliant." Here, finally, is a man of fine intellect and the highest training to whom the Catholic Church has become all in all, "the one success which earth has still to show" (p. 235). Yet there is not in these pages a word of condemnation of those who continue out of its fold, nor a suggestion of a fear of their future condemnation. How can a doctrine be much longer officially maintained which is in the intercourse of life practically abandoned?

Introduction to Ethics. By Frank Thilly. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1900. 8vo, pp. 346.

The logical analysis of the conceptions connected with morals is one of the very best whetstones for the wits ever found; and it has never caused anybody to be burned at the stake! It is this of which Prof. Thilly has put together a convenient little handbook, in nearly alternate chapters historical and defensive of his own positions. In the latter parts, many things are well and forcibly put, yet we are not impressed that the volume will be treasured for their sakes. There is at least one long portion in which thought of no very forcible logical cohesion is administered in pretty dilute solution. In the historical parts, by separating the accounts of the controversies over separate questions, and by separating, under each question, the divergent lines of thoughts, without, however, mincing the matter very fine, the rationale of the sequence of opinions and the gradual penetration of thought further and further into the problems are brought out with force and clearness. This method of presenting the history of such a subject is amazingly superior to the chronological plan; but its full success would call for a very thoroughly considered taxonomy of the opinions. In this respect, the present volume is not quite what we could desire. Thus, the classification of the doctrines concerning the basis of right and wrong is substantially borrowed from Wundt (without acknowledgment, by the way). It is true that a tabular view on p. 128 shows some trifling departures from Wundt's scheme; but these have no perceptible effect upon the history.

Wundt's arrangement may be exhibited as follows:

Theories of the Basis of Morality.

A. The Moral Law is externally imposed.
B. The Moral Law is rational:
  I. Its end is happiness:
    1. that of the agent,
    2. that of the community.
  II. Its tendency is improvement:
    1. of the agent,
    2. of the community.

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The most serious defect of this classification lies in its subdivision of rationalistic theory into only two branches, splitting upon the insignificant question of whether the end is completely attainable or not. This results in several inconveniences. It is very unjust to utilitarianism (one of the few theories of morals which have manifestly brought about any amelioration of society), by separating it only slightly from hedonism proper, or the doctrine that the lowest motive from which a rational being can act is at the same time the highest possible, and in short the only possible, motive. It overlooks entirely the very familiar view which makes the prolongation of the agent's conscious life the highest end. It confuses the morality which takes as its end the perfection of the individual man in a predetermined respect—say, by the substitution of altruistic for egoistic motives—with the morality which aims at the perfection of the individual in the sense of giving him whatever characters the future study of the question may show to be most desirable; and it falls into a like confusion in regard to theories which aim at the perfection of society. Moreover, it altogether fails to mark the world-wide difference between taking the perfection of society or of the individual as the *ultimate* end, and supposing a perfectionment to be brought about, so far as it is brought about at all, by natural selection, in which case the ultimate end is not perfection, but that toward which alone all natural selection works, to wit, the virtual fecundity of the race. Finally, it leaves out of account the possibility of so conceiving the ultimate end that it shall not be limited either to the individual or to human society. If we conceive that there is a methodical ideal—like order, or rationality—neither specifically psychical nor physical, which somehow has a power of developing itself in thoughts and things generally, then whatever furthers this progress is good, and *vice versa;* and such a conception refuses to be limited to any particular matter of realization.

Considering the imperfections of the classification with which Prof. Thilly has worked, it is much to his credit that he has, with little departure from accuracy, made the history appear clear and rational. We shall note a few small points to show that this book, like every other, has to be read critically. In the history of the theory of conscience, Hartley is placed after Bentham—a chronological displacement induced by the imperfection of the classification, and aggravated by the fact that the dates of publication are not commonly given, but only those of the different writers' birth and death. Some write their most characteristic works early, others later. Kant is placed among the perfectionists, contrary to his own energetic protests. He maintains that one must not act to bring about any definite result, but simply from the idea of duty. Herbert Spencer is refused a place among the evolutionistic moralists. He is, in truth, so vacillating that it is hard to say whether this is correct or not. It would have surprised Leslie Stephen to find himself in quite a different class from Spencer; and, whether this is right or not, neither he nor Darwin ought to be placed among perfectionists. True, they hold that conduct ought to realize an ideal, but not as its ultimate end. On the contrary, the ideal itself is, according to them, simply a result of natural selection, which acts solely to make some race or races dominant. Thus, the ultimate end for them is not inward but outward. Hume, in reference to his theory of conscience, is classed with Hutcheson. But he really followed Hartley, in the main; and where he disagrees with Hartley, he disagrees still more with Hutcheson. To Bernard Mandeville is attributed the proposition that greed and other selfish passions contribute more to the public good than benevolence does; and this proposition, being placed in quotation marks, will be understood to be the *ipsissima verba* of that author. This is approximately the opinion of some modern political economists of repute, but it was categorically repudiated by the author of the 'Fable of the Bees,' who was acute enough to see that it no more came within the scope of his inquiry, than it does into that of political economy, to determine what is and what is not for the public good. That which he undertook to prove was, that *if a nation desires expansion and splendor*, then it must have a rich and vicious class as the condition precedent to success in that career; but he added his private opinion that expansion and splendor do not really conduce to the happiness of a people, and therefore not to their "well being," if by that is meant their happiness. The last words of the fable are:

"They flew into a hollow tree,
Blest with content and honesty."

Robert's Primer of Parliamentary Law, for Schools, Colleges, Clubs, Fraternities, etc. By Joseph Thomas Robert. Doubleday & McClure Co. 1900.

The object of this book is very plainly stated at the start. The author proposes to "make a text-book in Parliamentary Law so simple that the average High-School teacher can make it plain to the average High-School pupil." We will frankly express our disapproval of the whole idea. At the same time we are ready to acknowledge that this Primer, which consists almost entirely of dialogues and examples to show the method of instructing High-School boys, and possibly Western legislatures, is very well prepared.

When Mr. Robert says that the various public bodies are working each in its own way, and that he has examined all English and American works on parliamentary law, and yet does not give the name of a single author, he does not deal fairly with his readers. Throughout New England and the Atlantic States generally, including the District of Columbia, there is an authority most generally accepted. This is, of course, Cushing's Manual. We will show later that no new text-book is required on the subject; but we will first dispose of Mr. Robert's heresies. His idea is to give every member of any public assembly such a smattering of law as will make him think that he knows as much as the presiding officer. No better plan could be invented to cause trouble, and to reduce such meetings to riotous mobs. No assembly of any size can transact business properly unless it has full confidence in a presiding officer, who shall be honest, impartial, and thoroughly versed in the principles and details of parliamentary law. Striking examples of this may be found in the House of Commons and Congress. In Parliament the Speakers have been highly honored, supported by all parties, and then, on retiring, rewarded with peerages. In Congress there have been some famous parliamentarians elected as Speaker, as, for example, Winthrop, Banks, Blaine, Randall, and Carlisle. We may add that the Legislature of Massachusetts and the Common Council of the city of Boston have distinguished themselves by great attention to parliamentary law, and that their rules have been extensively copied and observed throughout New England.

One of Mr. Robert's special fads is the idea that every motion must be seconded (see note on pp. 24-25). In both branches of the Massachusetts Legislature it is specially provided by a rule that no second is necessary. In the Common Council of Boston the same custom prevails, except that, by a special rule, an appeal from a decision of the Chair must be seconded. The requirement of a second is unnecessary, and only leads to wrangling and delay.

Mr. Robert also (pp. 52-53) has a good deal to say about a parliamentary inquiry. By this he means that "a member desiring information as to any rule or form relating to business already acted on, or now under consideration, or which he wishes to bring before the Assembly, may rise to a parliamentary inquiry." This means that he may interrupt a member who has the floor and is speaking. This idea of a parliamentary inquiry has made a slight inroad into the work of the Boston Common Council, but probably nowhere else in New England. It is a stupid innovation, unnecessary and prejudicial to the proper transaction of business. The old, sensible rule was, that a member obtaining the floor was to be protected from any interruption. There was a motion of privilege which could be made, but which was confined to a matter affecting the whole body, and not simply the individual member. If, for example, a member should discover signs of a fire in the hall, or a dangerous accident to the heating apparatus, or the presence of an unauthorized person in the members' seats, or, possibly, outrageous conduct by one of the members—it being clearly a matter which could not wait—he might rise and call the attention of the Chair to the fact. But no debate was allowable. In popular bodies where discipline had been loosened and the Chair had lost its grip, a bad custom has sprung up by which members have risen to make personal explanations under the pretence that it was a privileged matter. This is another bad innovation, and ought not to be countenanced.

We will now revert to our previous allusion to real authorities. The Massachusetts Senate provides that "The rules of parliamentary practice comprised in the revised edition of Crocker's 'Principles of Procedure in Deliberative Bodies,' and the principles of parliamentary law set forth in Cushing's 'Law and Practice of Legislative Assemblies,' shall govern the Senate in all cases to which they are applicable, and in which they are not inconsistent with the rules of the Senate, or the joint rules of the two branches." The order in the lower branch specifies no more than that the rules of parliamentary practice shall govern the House; but this is construed to be the same as the Senate rule. The Boston Common Council has the following rule: "The rules of parliamentary practice as contained in Cushing's 'Law and Practice of Legislative Assemblies' shall govern this Council in all cases to which they are applicable, and in

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which they are not inconsistent with these rules or the joint rules of the City Council." In many New England cities and towns, by express rule, and in all of them probably by custom, Cushing's Manual is fixed as the standard authority.

As to Crocker's Manual, which was prepared by the President of the Massachusetts Senate, it is simply Cushing's Manual amended on one point. The only real change in parliamentary practice during the last fifty years was made by Speaker Reed when he took the revolutionary measure of counting, to make a quorum, members who sat in the room but declined to vote, and also those whose hats and coats were hanging up in the side-rooms, even when the owners were not in sight. It was pretended that the Supreme Court endorsed this action, but, as we have heretofore pointed out, the court did nothing of the kind; it merely refused to consider the matter, on the ground that Congress had, under the Constitution, full power to make its own rules. It is understood that Mr. Crocker's book was written merely to introduce this doctrine as a part of the standard parliamentary law in Massachusetts. Reed's rule was an unjustifiable innovation for a fancied political necessity. But what is the result? The Great Speaker, being no longer needed, has been turned down by his party, and is now but a tradition in those Congressional halls where for years he was supreme. The Democrats, when next in power, will undoubtedly wipe the obnoxious rule from the Congressional Manual.

The Life of Wellington: The Restoration of the Martial Power of Great Britain. By the Right Hon. Sir Herbert Maxwell, Bart., M.P., F.R.S. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. xxviii, 405, 415.

This new Life of Wellington is warranted by the great mass of original material bearing on his career and his times which has been published during the present generation. Sir Herbert Maxwell has done his work in a judicial yet sympathetic spirit, avoiding excessive and indiscriminate eulogy, and seeing clearly the defects of temper and the dictatorial spirit which were at once the strength and the weakness of the Duke's leadership in civil affairs, after his great military history was closed. The free use of his dispatches and correspondence brings out strongly the clearness and directness of his judgment and the practical sense which he promptly applied to every question that arose, subject always to the strongly conservative principles of government which became a part of his nature.

The story of his military campaigns is well told, and may be accepted as the result of fair consideration of all the helps to the truth which are now available. His military qualities which most impress us are his power of seeing the problems of a campaign reduced to their simplest elements, and his indomitable courage, which made him the ideal battle-leader of the hard-fighting rank and file of the British army. Refinements of manœuvre he rarely attempted, but his undisturbed presence of mind, his tenacity, and his watchfulness for any slip in his adversary's tactics, coupled with his eager aggressiveness when such a slip occurred, made him a most formidable opponent, and gave him good claim to a place in the first rank of captains.

In his political career his cardinal principle was the aristocratic one, that the balance of progressive and conservative elements had made the British Constitution, as he found it, a nearly perfect practical instrument of government, so that any change was likely, by disturbing this balance, to precipitate mischievous results. Even the rotten boroughs, absurd in themselves, he defended as a vested interest in the hands of the great landowners, giving them an extra weight in legislation which was beneficial to the state by being a check upon the democratic tendencies of the House of Commons. The one exception to this conservatism in his creed was the favor he showed to the reform of Catholic disabilities; and this was due to his comradeship with faithful Catholic soldiers in his army, and his sense of injustice in refusing them the promotions and the recognition which they fairly won under his own eye.

In the great contest over the Reform Bill of 1832, Wellington began with a strong fight against the measure, leading the Tories in the House of Lords in the repeated rejection of the popular extension of the franchise, until he awoke to the truth that the nation was on the verge of a revolution which was likely to destroy the monarchy and the peerage at once. The cool generalship which had made him know when it was time to retreat before Masséna within his lines of Torres Vedras, now made him change his policy in politics. Instead of fighting to the end, he retired before defeat should be destructive, and made it thenceforward his strategy to obstruct and delay the progress toward democracy, never risking the existence of the House of Lords or the monarchy upon a pitched battle. Such a policy necessarily seemed inconsistent to his friends the ultra Tories, and broke up the old party. Yet Sir Herbert Maxwell makes it plain that from Wellington's point of view it was practical prudence, struggling to save as much as possible of the prestige and the power of the landed aristocracy, and to check the pace of a popular movement which could not be wholly stopped in any decisive measurement of forces. One of the chief values of this biography lies, as we think, in bringing out the natural development of this new conviction in the Duke's mind; the learning of his lesson that the old Toryism was doomed, and that a new and more moderate phase of conservatism must take its place if the monarchy and the peerage were to be saved. The lesson was roughly taught by the mobs which were perilously near an insurrection, and which, by smashing the windows of Apsley House, showed how his own great popularity was shattered; but his mental quality as the consummate soldier was never better shown than in confessing his defeat, and turning at once to reorganize his political forces for a dilatory campaign to save whatever could be saved of the power and privilege of his class. The amply told story is the conclusive answer to those who charged the Duke with vacillation and timidity, if not want of principle in politics, and gives his civil career a coherence and verisimilitude which is satisfactory. His brusqueness and too military methods in party leadership diminished his success in parliamentary management, but we can also see how the power of genuine character made its impress on the whole people.

The mechanical production of the book is in the well-known excellent English form, and the fine series of portraits is very interesting. The narrative has gained freshness by the judicious quotation from unpublished MSS. at Apsley House, Lady Salisbury's correspondence and journals at Hatfield, and from the storehouse of the Wellington Supplementary Dispatches.

The International Year Book: A Compendium of the World's Progress during the Year 1899. Frank Moore Colby, M.A., Editor. Dodd, Mead & Co. 8vo, pp. 887.

This book is more than its title indicates, and of a higher order than most year-books hitherto. A few "timely" and semi-journalistic touches may be found, of the sort usually supposed appropriate to these ephemeral publications; but the aim has been at solidity, and the general tone is that of a serious work—encyclopædia rather than annual. This, the editor tells us, was his design; and to this end he has had the powerful aid (as consulting editor) of Professor Peck, who seems to claim the entire field of knowledge for his province, and whose day can never contain less than twenty-four working hours. Examined piecemeal, the result of their labors affords far more occasion for congratulation than for complaint. The weightier topics have been treated with full knowledge by thoroughly competent hands. Especially excellent are the articles on astronomy, by Professor Jacoby, and those on engineering, by the editors of the *Engineering News*. Educational topics, psychology, philology, archæology, geology, biology, and the like, also receive full attention.

In the history we are more sharply constrained to remember that "to date" means to the date of going to press, and that no publication ever was or could be brought literally to date except an evening newspaper. The articles seem to omit nothing of importance that occurred during last year; yet we are less disappointed at the one on the Transvaal inclining somewhat toward the Boers than at its ending with Buller's dispatch after his losses at Colenso. Sometimes this inevitable limitation produces an almost archaic effect, *e.g.*: "Excepting Lord Wolseley, Lord Roberts is regarded as the foremost general in the British army." Nobody would make that exception now. Still more quaintly remote is this, which indeed it is difficult to read without a smile:

"There [was] widespread talk in the press, for a time, as to his possibilities as a Presidential candidate. He was mentioned principally as a candidate for the Democratic party, but as no one seemed to be certain that he was a Democrat, and as he stood for things which Democrats seemed unlikely to support, but especially because Admiral Dewey refused to consider any suggestion of the kind, the subject was not seriously discussed during the rest of the year."

But it is not the editor's fault that the world moves rapidly of late; and there is no irony about the picture of the Dewey Arch and parade.

As with History, so with Biography; Buller and Methuen get somewhat more space than they would now, and French and Hamilton were not discovered in time; but Roberts—most strictly contemporary just now

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of all great names—fortunately for all interests except Krüger's, was made commander-in-chief last December, and here we have him in full. Kitchener is mentioned merely as his chief of staff. The obituaries, necessarily a special feature in a year-book, are chiefly American, and largely of old political fossils like J. Madison Wells, ex-Governors, ex-Congressmen, and the like, who had so long survived their usefulness (or their offensiveness) that the only emotion aroused by these notices is surprise that their subjects were not buried long ago. In such cases, since compression was needed here, it would have been sufficient to give the fact and date of death, and let lingering admirers find the rest in the stock books of reference. Of the living, we do not grudge the space allowed to Croker and Quay, since none of it is wasted in compliments; but why these and not Platt? Is not he also a Boss? There seems unfair discrimination here. In pleasing variation from the usual soberness of these notices, the biographer of Gov. Roosevelt devotes a paragraph to his reunion, review, and gold medal in New Mexico in June, 1899—events apparently of national importance. Mr. McKinley is cruelly passed by. Has Professor Colby no loyalty, no patriotism?

It is a good book whose blemishes are as trivial as these—not errors of fact, but matters of relative space, selection, and the point of view. For instance, why should Richard Whiteing (of 'No. 5 John Street') have an article to himself, when Miss Cholmondeley, whose 'Red Pottage' was the most successful of last year's English novels, has none? Why—to shift the field—discriminate in favor of the New England colleges? Here are Amherst, Bowdoin, Dartmouth, Wesleyan, Williams, but not (to cite but a few omissions) Dickinson, Lafayette, Vanderbilt, nor even the Washington University of St. Louis, which during 1899 received large gifts in land and money. Here are Vassar, Wellesley, Smith, but no Bryn Mawr. More strangely still, the leading technical intitutions—the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute at Troy, the Stevens Institute at Hoboken, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, the Lehigh University—are passed by. Of course all these are mentioned in the seventeen-page table of universities and colleges; but why give some of them a special article apiece, and ignore others of equal importance? And as to the last batch referred to, the editors of so practical a book as this, containing so much about the applied sciences, surely cannot mean to underrate technical education. The well-known Dr. J. Max Hark of Bethlehem, Pa., is here unkindly turned to Hork.

A few of the articles seem inadequate. The Tuskegee Institute, as one of the most useful and admirable schools in this or any land, deserves more than eleven lines. Automobiles are now so much in evidence that less than a page appears scant measure. The Chicago Drainage Canal gets but two lines and a half, under "Canals." Under the Brooklyn Bridge, it was hardly necessary to omit the familiar and pathetic fact that the engineer who completed that great structure wrecked his health through exposure incident to his duties.

The main article on Literature, a résumé of the books of 1899, devotes ten pages to those of America, and less than three to the English, which seems odd in an "international" book. The English part is the better done, but it contains two large statements: on Stevenson's Letters, "the unanimous verdict was that they had been too severely and discreetly edited"; Kipling's 'Stalky & Co.' "was received with universal disappointment." "Universal" and "unanimous" are big words. But the American annalist goes further yet. Mrs. Wharton's 'The Greater Inclination,' when he fell upon it, was "exhibiting in the highest degree that rare creative power called literary genius." That is, Mrs. Wharton is on a par with Shakspere: higher praise could hardly be given to the bard, though it might be better expressed. This sort of "criticism" ought not to get beyond the weeklies; when it reaches the year-books, its fires are out and it makes chilly reading. On the other hand, the obituary notice of Gherbuliez is intelligent enough for any season. To have in a book of reference so just a tribute and so true an interpretation (however brief) of a neglected writer is a gain. Usually our cyclopædists and school-book makers knew not this Joseph, or looked on him askance.

Further search would probably disclose some errors which we have failed to detect, and opinions or expressions from which we must dissent. But the wonder is that a book which has to be got together in a deadly hurry, and which nobody expects to be other than amorphous and ephemeral, should be so well planned and carried out. If it is the first of a series, the series promises large usefulness.

Tennyson, Ruskin, Mill, and Other Literary Estimates. By Frederic Harrison. The Macmillan Co. 1900.

The task of writing a short article upon this volume would in no case be an easy one, since the fourteen essays which it contains relate to almost as many different subjects. But Mr. Harrison, to make things still more difficult for the reviewer, expresses a very low opinion of the value possessed by current criticism. He not only places the average critic in comparison with Matthew Arnold; this of itself would be damaging enough. Having thus given the modern pretender a *coup de grâce,* Mr. Harrison buries him completely by stating that "too much of what is now called criticism is the improvised chatter of a raw lad, portentously ignorant of the matter in hand." Mr. Harrison has apparently not escaped the conservative tendencies which accompany mature years. Youth often is "raw," no doubt, but it must get its experience somehow, if only through the tedious process of book reviewing. One feels rather surprised that any man with Mr. Harrison's long record of radicalism should decry youthful efforts, even when jejune.

Mr. Harrison's quarrel with modern reviewers has, however, another aspect. He complains less of immaturity than of haste. "It is not the 'indolent reviewer' that we now suffer under, but the 'lightning reviewer,' the young man in a hurry, with a kodak, who finally disposes of a new work on the day of its publication. One of them naïvely complained the other morning of having to cut the pages, as if we ever suspected that he cut the pages of more than the preface and table of contents." The reader will see how such an indictment must affect the nerves, indeed must shake the confidence, of the writer who attempts to review Mr. Harrison's essays without having meditated upon them duly. Fortunately, we can say that our withers are unwrung. We have read the book, and read it with attention; in proof of which we may say that the passages already quoted occur not in the preface, but at page 117.

Although Mr. Harrison is not a blind admirer of the reviewing tribe, we shall avoid making any reprisals on that score. There is an undue desire at present to bind up the articles, more or less fugitive, which have appeared in the magazines, and call them a book. Whether or not we accept either Milton's or Ruskin's definition of what a book should be, these haphazard miscellanies seldom reach a high level. We state the general rule. But no one who has followed Mr. Harrison's career, both literary and philosophical, will deny that he has more than ordinary right to republish the articles which he sends to the *Nineteenth Century* and the *Contemporary Review.* What he writes is always sprightly and often vivacious. Moreover, these essays possess the unity of a series which deals with different aspects of the same subject. He now brings to the discussion of English literature the same precision of idea which he showed erstwhile in debating the philosophical position of Positivists and Agnostics.

Mr. Harrison's intellectual interests are so wide that one is not surprised at finding representatives of poetry and prose, of history and philosophy, in his page of titles. Tennyson, Ruskin, Matthew Arnold, Symonds, Lamb, Keats, Gibbon, Froude, Freeman and Mill are the several masters whose intrinsic value and breadth of influence he estimates. For each of them he has glowing praise; and though he points out limitations, the spirit of praise is preponderant throughout. The lives and works of great men are nowhere held in more honor than among the Comtists, and the warmth of Mr. Harrison's sympathy lends his studies a certain hortatory value. We have been impressed at all times in reading Mr. Harrison's volumes by his cordiality of tone towards strong opponents. There is hardly among Englishmen a more out-and-out party man, and he has borne the brunt of whole controversial campaigns. But though he has hit his opponents hard, he has recognized their ability with far less grudging than the "man-in-the-street" shows. In spite of their celebrated duel, he does not belittle Spencer; and Mill, who also assailed the Positivists, escapes his enmity.

We emphasize this philosophical detachment because we know several persons who look upon Mr. Harrison as a wrong-headed controversialist, and nothing more. They should turn to the essay on "Ruskin as a Master of Prose," if they would see how unjust such an impression is:

"As one of the oldest and most fervent believers in his genius and the noble uses to which he has devoted it, I long to say a word or two in support of my belief; not that I have the shadow of a claim to speak as his disciple, to defend his utterances, or to represent his thoughts. . . . He regards me, I fear, as an utterly lost soul, destined to nothing but evil in this world and the next. And did he not once long ago, in private communication and in public excommunication, consign me to outer darkness, and cover with indignant scorn every man and everything in which I have put my trust?"

If a single passage taken from the context sounds like a parade of ostentatious generosity, we may say that Mr. Harrison re-

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peatedly shows the same disposition in a manner of forgiveness less pronounced.

We have restricted our comment to a single point from the obvious impossibility of making this short notice "a review of reviews." Mr. Harrison is a student of style who examines the mechanism of melodious prose, striving to see how exalted effects are produced by alliteration, consonance, and other conscious or instructive expedients of the master. On the other hand, he has a wide comparative knowledge of classical and modern literature, so that he approaches his theme with respect for careful workmanship and also with an admiration of large ideas. He has a most ready command of his learning, and the faculty of presenting general questions in a direct and concrete way. We hope that he will not consider modern criticism altogether bad, when it freely recognizes the many admirable qualities of style and thought which are revealed in the present volume of "literary estimates."

Federal Clearing-houses. By Theodore Gilman. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1899.

No financial agency better deserves study than the clearing-house. The original purpose of this institution was simply to save the use of large quantities of money in settling the daily balances between a number of banks in the same city. Every bank daily receives from its depositors checks drawn on all the others, and at the same time the checks of its own customers are deposited in the other banks. To collect all these claims by messengers and to pay them to messengers was long since found altogether too laborious and expensive, and a central office, or clearing-house, was created, where debts and credits were offset and final balances paid by means of a comparatively trifling amount of cash.

Such were the original and still are the ordinary functions of the clearing-house, and yet we have here a book which treats of clearing-houses without so much as alluding to these functions. No testimony to the magnitude of the new powers which these bodies have come to exercise could be more striking. These powers are the direct outgrowth of the closer relations between the banks which the clearing-house produced. In order to insure the proper discharge by each bank of its responsibilities to the clearing-house, it was necessary that its financial condition should be to a certain extent disclosed, and in this way the foundation was laid for that use of collective credit which is exemplified in the clearing-house certificates. It may often happen that a certain bank is subjected to demands from its depositors which it cannot meet without embarrassment, although its assets may greatly exceed its liabilities. The conditions may be such that these assets cannot be liquidated without great loss, and loans upon them cannot well be obtained by banks at times when the demands on the banks for loans are exceptionally great. But there are always some banks, and generally a large number, which are strong enough to meet all the claims that are likely to be made on them, and which have even such wealth as to be able to lend to their feebler brethren. These banks, by the use of clearing-house certificates, lend their surplus to such banks as are in straits, on pledge of satisfactory securities, and at such rates of interest as make it an object to the borrowers to repay the loan as soon as possible.

It is the opinion of Mr. Gilman that the exercise of these new functions should be regulated by law. He regards the functions and mode of organization of clearing-houses as in a rudimentary condition, and thinks that they can be developed and made uniform only by the Congress of the United States. He contends that our credit system "requires an adjunct which shall provide a currency for its support based upon a credit disconnected from and independent of the banks." According to his plan, which he has worked out in detail and with full understanding of the situation, there should be a clearing-house in every State incorporated under Federal law; membership therein being given to all banks in good standing. The clearing-house should have power to issue currency to its members up to seventy-five per cent. of the value of banking assets pledged, which currency is to be received by all members of clearing-houses for all dues, and to be guaranteed not only by the borrowing bank, but also by all the other members of the clearing-house, and in the last resort by all the clearing-houses of the country.

The theoretical advantages of such a system are undeniable. The currency would be more "elastic," and the terrible strain upon the meagre reserves of individual banks would be relieved. The contraction of credit necessary to maintain these reserves in times of panic would probably not be so severe as at present. On the other hand, the objections will be thought by many conservative bankers to outweigh all those advantages. At present the associated banks of New York issue their certificates according to their judgment. They know the officers of the borrowing banks personally; they know their debtors personally or by reputation. They can modify their regulations in the light of their experience; and after what the country has suffered from the financial incompetency of Congress, we cannot contemplate without a shudder the possibility of putting the control of the clearing-houses in the hands of that body. The gentlemen who manage the New York Clearing-house are, perhaps, the most competent and responsible body of financiers in the world, and we should hesitate long before we subjected them to the control of whatever party happened to be in charge of the general Government. To enact that these bankers must guarantee the payment of certificates issued by the clearing-houses of Texas, or Montana, or South Dakota, would, we apprehend, tend much more to weaken our credit system than to strengthen it.

On this general subject the wise words of the late Prof. Dunbar deserve to be quoted:

"What is effective by way of relief is not necessarily salutary as a regular system. The relief in this case comes from the fact that, under the arrangement for combined reserves, every bank is completely discharged from any real sense of responsibility for cautious action. Slight as its share of responsibility may be under ordinary circumstances, under this arrangement it is free to expand or to neglect ordinary precautions at pleasure; the arrangement is entered into for the precise object of thus setting it free, and it is in the public knowledge of this fact that the virtue of the arrangement consists. But under ordinary circumstances it is not by any diminished sense of responsibility that the way to sound banking and to the ultimate good of the community is to be found."

Shakespeare-Grammatik. Von W. Franz. Halle: Max Niemeyer; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

This is not a Shakspere Grammar at all, but, like many others of its kind, is a treatment merely of Shakspere's syntax, with a preliminary discussion of inflection. One would expect this from the spelling of the title, for modern Shakspere study has long divided itself on the shibboleth of S-h-a-k-e-s-p-e-a-r-e and S-h-a-k-s-p-e-r-e, dilettante and popular methods preferring the spelling of the Folio, scientific and historical study generally following that of the majority of Shakspere's signatures. There are, of course, noted exceptions to this, but they are to be found chiefly among English and American scholars and not among the Germans, though it would seem that the adoption of the S-h-a-k-s-p-e-r-e form by the 'New English Dictionary' and the 'Century Dictionary' should definitively settle the matter. The book itself, however, is not unscientific in its method; the author shows a familiarity with English Historical Grammar, and treats his subject from the historical standpoint. In this respect the work is a great improvement over Abbott's, which, though accurate and painstaking for its time, has long since been superseded by better methods.

It would have been comparatively easy to bring together a considerable amount of scientific information in regard to Shakspere's sounds, and to have presented this clearly and simply in the light of modern English scholarship; nor would it have been impossible to present the fundamental principles of Shakspere's versification in a clear and simple way, revising and correcting Abbott's treatment of the subject so as to bring it up to date. If the author had done this, he would have given us a book which is badly needed; but he has not done this, and has given us instead a very discursive, though withal scientific and historical, treatment of Shakspere's syntax, largely based upon Abbott's 'Grammar' and the grammatical material found in Schmidt's 'Shakspere Lexicon.' The work is evidently intended for the German student of Shakspere, and therefore contains a great deal of information, much of it incorrect, in respect to the grammar of present English. All but the very best German work in this field shows a great weakness in its lack of a feeling for idiom, as any constant reader of such journals as *Anglia* and *Englische Studien* cannot fail to notice. This book is conspicuous for its lack of New English *Sprachgefühl*. One learns, for instance, on page 187, that *yon* and *yonder* are no longer in use in spoken English; on p. 135, that the idioms *this same, that same* are obsolete; on p. 192, that the word *somewhither* is obsolete; on the same page that *forth*, in connection with ideas of motion, has gone out of use in English; that *stand by*, in the sense of *to stand back*, is now obsolete—that *hard by* is present English; on p. 185, that *never*, in such idioms as *never fear, never a word*, is not in literary use.

Another conspicuous weakness of the book is the carelessness and the inconsistency of its references, and the confusing way in

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which they are printed. It is with great difficulty, for instance, that one understands a reference like "N. E. D. B. I S. 322" to refer to Vol. 1, p. 322 of the 'New English Dictionary' (the citing of a dictionary by volume and page is deliciously German), but how is one to explain "Murray Dict. S.175," with no indication as to the volume referred to? Or how is one to disentangle "Murray Dict. *but* C. 6 S.1211"? or "N. E. D. unter *and* C. B. I S. 317"? or "N. E. D. unter *asleep* B. I S. 491"? or "Murray Dict. B. I S.64"? "Scott, B.D.III S.22" is rather an unceremonious way of introducing Sir Walter's 'Black Dwarf' to the student's attention, though the reference is explained in the preface. But who or what "Gerber S. 46" is, there is no clue to anywhere, either in preface or appendix. "Jesp. Progr. S. 214" is seemingly meant for "Jespersen, *Progress* (of something), Seite 214"—or is "Progr." meant for *Programm?*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allchin, Dr. W. H. A Manual of Medicine. Macmillan. Vol. I.
Allen, G. Hilda Wade: A Woman with Tenacity of Purpose. Putnams. $1.50.
Altsheler, J. A. In Circling Camps: A Romance of the Civil War. Appletons. $1.50.
Ashe, Dr. E. O. Besieged by the Boers. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Baldwin, Rev. S. L. Foreign Missions of the Protestant Churches. Eaton & Mains. $1.
Beman, Prof. W. W., and Smith, D. E. Elements of Algebra. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Benjamin, P. The United States Naval Academy: The Yarn of the American Midshipman (Naval Cadet). Putnams.
Bourne, G. C. An Introduction to the Study of the Comparative Anatomy of Animals. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.10.
Bradley, H. C. Rugby. [Handbooks to the Great Public Schools Series.] London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Brady, C. T. Stephen Decatur. [Beacon Biographies.] Boston: Small, Maynard & Co. 75c.
Brinkerhoff, Gen. R. Recollections of a Lifetime. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. $2.
Brown, Rev. W. B. The Problem of Final Destiny. Thos. Whittaker. $1.50.
Bürger's Lenore. Translated from the German by Dante Gabriel Rossetti. New ed. London: Ellis & Elvey.
Carlyle, T. The French Revolution: A History. New ed. Scribners. $1.75.
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